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TYPES OF SCHOOLS FOR BOYS

TYPES OF SCHOOLS FOR BOYS

By

ALFRED E. STEARNS, L. R. GIGNILLIAT, MILO H. STUART
ERIC PARSON AND J. J. FINDLAY

CHILDHOOD AND YOUTH SERIES

Edited by M. V. O'SHEA
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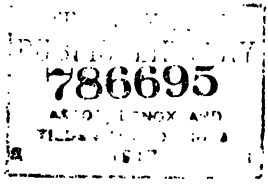

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EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION

As the social and industrial life of a people becomes more complex, the schools tend to become differentiated and specialized. A nation could not develop very complex activities if all the young were trained in schools organized and conducted in the same way, with just the same course of study. It will be granted that all pupils should receive similar training for substantially the period of the elementary school in our country; but beyond that there must be special courses and types of schools for different social and industrial conditions and needs. And it is as important that appropriate kinds of schools should be provided for different economic and social groups as for various industrial groups. This general principle is apparently recognized in American life, since there is developing among us a variety of types of schools which are designed to give the kind of training which is deemed to be most suitable for the different industrial, economic and social groups.

The purpose of the present volume is to present concrete and detailed information regarding the ideals, the distinguishing traits, and to some extent the achievements of the principal types of schools for boys in this country. It is generally believed that the so-called public schools for boys in England have played a leading rôle in the training of leaders in English political, intellectual and social life, and so they are described in this volume in the belief that we may profit by them in

the development of our own schools. The command was laid upon each author, who is thoroughly familiar with the type of schools which he treats, to give an inside view of his school, so that a parent or teacher or student of education might see the actual, every-day life of the school, including its class-room activities, its games and sports, its government, and the relations between pupils or cadets and masters or instructors.

Any person who will read this book will see that the types of schools represented differ markedly from one another in matters of fundamental importance, as well as in details of organization, administration and discipline. A student of American social and industrial conditions will probably feel that these various types of schools meet an increasingly important need. At the same time, it must be recognized that there are many laymen, and also teachers, who are opposed to some of these types of schools for boys, mainly because all they know about them they have gained from rumor. The present writer has heard men vigorously condemn military schools and church schools, and in fact all private schools. They have maintained that American boys should all be educated together in public schools. On the other hand, the writer has heard men condemn all public schools, either because of their supposed materialistic or commercial or irreligious character, or because of the general flabbiness of their work. It is probable that these criticisms would be much less common and severe if men really understood the aims, practises and every-day life of the schools which they censure.

The writer feels he can say from first-hand observa-

tion of the types of schools described in this volume that they are all needed for the proper education of the various groups of boys in American life. The problem is to guide each boy to attach himself to the school which is best adapted to his economic status, his interests and his plans for his life-work. It is believed that this book will help parents and teachers to advise boys so that they may choose their secondary schools wisely. It should also be of interest and assistance to boys themselves who are undecided regarding the secondary school which they ought to attend. No one will probably say that what is set forth herein is dry or dull or abstruse or technical. Each author has kept a real audience in view, and he has given a concrete, lively character to all he has written.

Madison, Wisconsin. M. V. O'SHEA.

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TYPES OF SCHOOLS FOR BOYS

The American Academy

By Alfred E. Stearns

TYPES OF SCHOOLS FOR BOYS

The American Academy

CHAPTER I

HISTORICAL

THE academy, as we know it, is distinctly an American institution, yet its origin was really in England, and its first appearance is recorded as far back as the middle of the seventeenth century. The little village of Rathwill claims the distinction of giving birth to this new type of school and the year was probably 1665. By the Act of Uniformity of 1662 about two thousand clergymen were driven from their pulpits, and non-conformists were refused admission to the public schools and universities. As teachers these banished clergymen found a fertile field for the exercise of their talents, and among the children of their non-conformist brethren they speedily found their scholars. The schools which were thus established to meet these unique conditions were the forerunners of our later American academies. Before the outbreak of the American Revolution about thirty of

these academies had come into existence in England. Some of them were local institutions only; but not a few became boarding-schools not wholly unlike the English public schools in organization and character.

In one important respect the new academy differed from the English public schools. Founded by clergymen and drawing its students from the families of those who had sacrificed much for their religious convictions, it was but natural that the academy should have been dominated by a strong non-conformist, religious influence. The subjects provided in the curriculum, therefore, were primarily those that were regarded as essential from the view-point of the clergyman. The classics with Hebrew and the Scriptures were duly emphasized. But with the universities closed against its pupils the academy was naturally bound to become something of a finishing school and hence not a few university subjects found their place in the curriculum. Because of its independent position the new school was largely freed from the domination of the university, and it may truly be said that the early academy represented a spirit of dissent, religious and academic as well. Because of this spirit of dissent it is not to be wondered at that the English academy furnished the most satisfactory model for our American forefathers as they labored to found and develop on the western continent schools suited to the needs of American youth.

Earliest American Academy.—The earliest of our American academies was that founded in Philadelphia in 1751 under the personal influence of Benjamin Franklin. It was known as The Public Academy in

the City of Philadelphia. As this new academy was partly supported by state and city funds and as its courses included not only those of the ordinary secondary school but those of the higher institutions as well, it can not be fairly said to represent the true type of the American academy that a little later found such favor with the American public and grew so rapidly in size and number. Indeed Franklin's academy later lost its identity entirely and developed into the University of Pennsylvania.

The endowed American academy, like most of our earliest institutions of learning, really had its birth in New England. It was conceived in Puritan minds, fostered by Puritan thought and guided and developed in its early life by Puritan intelligence and zeal. While the more daring and adventurous of the early American pioneers pushed their conquest of the new continent steadily westward their more cultured and intellectual countrymen who remained behind turned zealously to the task of making these conquests sure.

Of the New England academies Dummer Academy in South Byfield, Massachusetts, enjoys the distinction of being the oldest. It was founded in the year 1763 but was not incorporated until nineteen years later. Its founder was the Honorable William Dummer, who had served as lieutenant-governor of the Province of Massachusetts Bay from 1716 to 1730 and acting governor from 1723 to 1728.

First Typically American Academy.—It was not, however, until the founding of Phillips Academy at Andover, Massachusetts, in 1778, and its sister school, the Phillips-Exeter Academy at Exeter, New Hamp-

shire, several years later, that the distinctive type of American academy may fairly be said to have come into existence. These two schools were the first incorporated academies in this country. From the outset they were national in their scope; and among their earliest scholars were the nephews and grand-nephews of President Washington himself, sent from far-away Virginia to secure the advantages afforded by this new type of school. Other academies were rapidly founded from this time on, and for nearly a century the academy occupied a commanding position in the field of American secondary education.

In the year 1850 the number of academies is officially reported to have been between six and seven thousand. A few years later the number began steadily to decline. The official report for the year 1910 gives the number as eighteen hundred. This period of decline corresponds with the period of the birth and the rapid growth and expansion of the public high school.

The Academy and Public High School.—It was but natural that the public high school should largely supplant the academy. With few exceptions the early academies were largely local institutions and feebly endowed. They made little if any effort to attract pupils from districts not close at hand. Not many could fairly be regarded as boarding-schools though provision was not infrequently made in the homes of teachers or neighbors for a few students who might come from outside the town limits. They were thus the forerunners of the modern high school; and with the ever increasing demand for education free to all and pro-

vided at the expense of the individual town or city most of these early academies were ere long supplanted by the more modern institution or merged within it. A few indeed, like Franklin's academy in Philadelphia, became the foundation of higher institutions. Throughout New England to-day the results of this process are everywhere in evidence. Many local high schools still carry as part of their equipment the names, the endowments, and even in some cases the buildings of the early academies from which these more modern schools have been evolved or to which they have been grafted.

Difficulties of Early Academies.—Not all, however, have suffered this fate. Those which in their earliest conception were national rather than local in their scope have followed a different course. Some have been hampered by conditions and limitations that have checked their growth and influence. Denominational restrictions have in some cases seriously curtailed the constituencies from which pupils could be drawn. Coeducational proscriptions have proved an almost insurmountable obstacle for others. When progress has been questionable or at best slow the fault will generally be found to exist in the narrowness or inflexibility of the early foundation. Held in check by limitations of this kind, it is not surprising that many academies, the natural resources and earlier prestige of which would seem to have justified a longer existence and larger usefulness, have surrendered to the keen competition of the public high schools and the more modern private boarding-schools. Not infrequently the courts have been appealed to for help in

the effort to break away from restrictions clearly prejudicial to growth if not actual existence. When these appeals have been heeded readjustments have followed with most beneficial results. Even to-day it is not uncommon to find one of these early institutions undergoing as it were a new birth, bringing with it the prospects of renewed activity and increasing usefulness.

Fortunate indeed have been those academies that were founded by men of sufficient intelligence and farsightedness to plan their schools on national lines with foundations broad and flexible enough to make possible such readjustments as changing conditions and modern demands have made necessary. Few in number though these academies are, their growth has been steady and wholesome until to-day the best of them are not able to provide for the increasing number of those who seek their advantages. The two Phillips academies at Andover and Exeter have steadily added to their equipment in buildings and funds: their faculties within the past twenty-five years have more than doubled in size; and their enrolments, now nearly six hundred for each school, are limited only by the capacity of the schools themselves and the judgment of the school authorities as to the number of pupils that can be most effectively handled. In age and in uninterrupted growth these two academies are perhaps unique; but others have followed the same general lines of development, and this too in spite of the amazing growth and spread not only of the public high schools but of the private boarding and day schools as well.

Influence of the Academy on the High School.— During the period that marks the advent and spread of the public high school the academy performed an important function. In a very real sense it may be said to have standardized the work of the more modern institution. Especially was this true in matters relating to the curriculum. Courses of study already finally established in the older institution became at once a part of the curriculum of the more modern school. What had been proved to be good in the old was considered good enough for the new. And for many years after the newer institution had finally established its place in the American educational scheme, both the curriculum and standards of work of the academy exerted a strong and telling influence upon the public high school. Indeed only in comparatively recent years may it be truly said that the high school, yielding to the immediate demands of the public which it serves, has broken away from these standards and struck out on its own individual lines; yet even here the influence of the academy has been conservative and wholesome in checking radical and eccentric tendencies so common in the public school.

CHAPTER II

AIMS AND IDEALS

THE founders of our earliest academies have made clear in many ways the ideals that inspired their acts. Without exception these men were men of lofty minds and unselfish lives, fervent patriots and law-abiding, God-fearing citizens. The fact that they were in all cases not theorists, but active public servants filling successfully some of the highest offices of the land, is evidence that they believed that this new type of school was to fill an important place in the life of the nation. As they looked with deep anxiety toward the future of the new republic the belief became a deep-rooted conviction that education was to safeguard the destinies of the nation.

No narrow definition of education would suit their high purpose. Education must be of the whole man, mind, soul and body. They realized the great truth that the stability and permanent greatness of any nation must depend primarily upon the sound character of the individual citizen. Neither intellectual greatness nor moral worth by itself would satisfy their ideal. Indeed, the former they regarded as dangerous; the latter as weak. One must complement the other if true character was to be obtained. Character, therefore, was the paramount issue; character made up of a trained

and active intellect fortified by a vigorous and rugged morality.

Emphasis on Character in the Constitution of Phillips Academy.—It would be difficult to find a clearer definition of this aim than as it is set forth in the constitution of Phillips Academy, written by its founder in the year 1777. Judge Phillips had no other document of a similar character to guide him in his task; but the ideals here so clearly set forth are found in similar though varying forms in the constitutions of many later academies scattered throughout the land. That these aims may be clearly understood a few extracts from this document are given below.

In the opening preamble, after the reasons for founding the academy are carefully enumerated, it is stated that the school is established "for the purpose of instructing youth, not only in English and Latin grammar, writing, arithmetic, and those sciences, wherein they are commonly taught; *but more especially to learn them the great end and real business of living.*" The italics are mine; but this last clause, couched in such homely but convincing language, so clearly and comprehensively sets forth the purpose of the founders of this academy, and others of those early years, that it can not be too strongly emphasized.

Character Must Include Mind and Morals.—Later in the document, and by way of explaining how this object may best be attained, this significant paragraph occurs: "It shall ever be considered as the first and principal duty of the master, to regulate the tempers, to enlarge the minds, and form the morals of the youth committed to his care."

But the clearest exposition of the true meaning of education as this founder conceived it is stated in a still later paragraph which can not well be abridged. I give it, therefore, in full:

"But, above all, it is expected that the master's attention to the disposition of the *minds* and *morals* of the youth, under his charge, will exceed every other care; well considering that, though goodness without knowledge (as it respects others) is weak and feeble; yet knowledge without goodness is dangerous; and that both united, form the noblest character, and lay the surest foundations of usefulness to mankind."

There can be no mistaking the meaning of these words. A sounder definition of education it would be difficult to find. And the same spirit permeates this document from beginning to end.

I have dwelt at some length on the constitution referred to above partly because it is the one most familiar to me, but chiefly because, written as it was during the latter part of the eighteenth century, it has served as a model for many of our American academies of later date, and hence may be taken as fairly representative of those later documents embodying the aims and ideals of the founders of these schools.

Significance of Education.—To the thoughtful men of these early and stirring times the greatest dangers that threatened the young republic in its natural process of growth and expansion were believed to be rooted in the ignorance of its citizens. Whatever of vice or disorder cast its benumbing shadow on the land was attributed to this common cause. Education, therefore, was to be the remedy for the country's ills.

And yet the very fact that these thoughtful philanthropists confidently expected so much from the application of their favorite remedy prompted them to guard jealously against the dilution of the ingredients of which it was composed. On this point they were clear. And that others might not be misled they constantly reiterated their belief that education must include the whole man, mind, soul and body, if the real end sought for, the formation of sound character, was to be successfully attained.

It is clear then that the supreme goal of education, as interpreted by the academy, was to be the development of a sound character for the individual citizen. The exploitation of the material resources of the land had not yet lured men from the higher claims of citizenship. Materialism had not spread its subtle influence over men's thoughts and activities. The value of a good citizen was rated higher than the value of a successful business man, a clever lawyer, or an expert engineer. The ideals of the Puritan still exerted their influence on the minds of men and, in a measure, molded their acts. Good citizenship alone could insure the stability and permanence of the new republic; and good citizenship involved then as it does now good character. And so the early academies, like the colleges, strove to send forth into the world men of trained and quickened intellects, men of sound and rugged morality, men of religious conviction and sincere piety, men in fact who should be willing and able to devote their talents to the service of state and nation, that the future might be safeguarded and made secure.

The Academy and Preparation for College.—While the academy thus laid its chief emphasis on the training for life, the claims of the higher institutions were not ignored and preparation for college early became an important part of the academy's work. That this was not intended to be the chief function of the academy has already been shown. And yet it seems clear that in the minds of the founders this function, too, had been considered and provided for. Yet these men can hardly have anticipated the development of later years which made the academy more and more a preparatory school for college and increasingly less a training school for life.

It was during that period that marks the growth and rapid development of the public high school that the academy shifted its emphasis to the preparation for college. This was natural enough. Supported at the public expense the high school was subjected to an increasing pressure to serve its immediate constituency. Recognizing that the majority of the high-school pupils would not or could not go on with the higher education, the public demanded that the high school give its pupils more practical subjects than those required for admission to college. To this demand the high school has justly yielded. In doing so, however, it has not been able to place so much emphasis on its college preparatory work. Just the opposite course has been pursued by the academy. Those pupils who have sought training along practical lines have naturally turned in increasing numbers to the high school, depriving the academy of a large portion of its former constituency. On the other hand, those who have de-

sired preparation for college have turned steadily toward the schools that make college preparation their specialty. Recognizing these changed conditions, the academy has wisely shifted the emphasis to college preparatory work. To-day the leading academies are largely fitting schools for our eastern colleges and universities and for the reasons stated above.

Emphasis Still Placed by the Academy on Character.—In spite of the changes in its curriculum referred to above, the academy has never lost sight of the great aim of its founders—the development of character. Seeking always to stimulate and strengthen the intellectual life of its pupils, it has constantly sought as well to minister to their moral needs and to develop and satisfy religious longings. Whatever has tended to develop sound character in the school life has been fostered and encouraged. Religion, as in the past, exerts a strong and uplifting influence on the student body. Though the courses of study are planned primarily to fit pupils for the higher institutions, the daily routine with its numerous and wholesome activities, and the influences which permeate the school life, are definitely planned to develop character; in a word to meet the needs of mind and soul and body. From the academy's standpoint education should and does minister to the needs of the whole man.

CHAPTER III

THE PLACE OF THE ACADEMY IN MODERN EDUCATION

WE have already seen that the academy in its more recent development has become distinctly a fitting school for the college and university. And it is interesting to note that the oldest and to-day the strongest of our academies are primarily fitting schools for the higher institutions of the East. The academy, as a distinct type of school, has almost wholly disappeared in our western and southern states. Where it still exists there it is fighting hard for its life or has undergone modifications which have radically changed its character. In most of those cases where it still retains its historic features it will be found to be in close alliance with higher institutions patterned after the eastern college and still retaining the ideals of the early New England institution. It is in the East, and especially in the New England states, that the historic academy has enjoyed the most conspicuous growth and to-day occupies a position of greatest prosperity and strength. To appreciate the reasons for this we must note the character and significant growth of our great state universities of the West and South and must understand the marked distinctions that separate them in aims and ideals from the older colleges and universities of the East.

Function of State Universities.—Like the public high school, the state university has been called into existence by a definite public demand. In many respects and for similar reasons it embodies the strength and the weakness of the public school. It is supported by public funds, is subject to political influence and control, and is compelled to teach those subjects demanded by the immediate constituency that it serves and in a way that this constituency desires. Like the public school, therefore, its emphasis has been very naturally placed on the practical and scientific side of education. The hustling West has been too busy with the pressing problems of developing its great territory and amassing wealth to be willing to concern itself deeply with the more intellectual and cultural side of the higher education. And it has shaped the work of its universities accordingly and poured its wealth lavishly into their treasuries that these institutions might render material aid in the accomplishment of this material aim. In the development of the scientific and practical side of their work these more modern institutions have made wonderful progress and already surpass most of their older rivals of the East.

Function of Eastern Colleges.—The historic institutions of the East have pursued a different course and have clung steadfastly to a different educational ideal. Yielding reluctantly to the public demand, less insistent than that in the West, they have broadened their curricula to include scientific subjects and a few of a purely practical nature. But the intellectual and cultural ideal still predominates; and even the more scientific subjects have been made to contribute toward

the maintenance of this ideal. The character of the individual student, though the emphasis is largely placed on the intellectual side of character, remains still the most important factor in the work of the eastern college. And its graduate schools in law, medicine and theology are not yet equaled by those of the more modern and more wealthy universities of the West. The traditional purpose to give the student an ideal and to inspire within him the desire to realize that ideal in his life may still be said to be the main function of the historic eastern institution.

From what has already been said of the aims and ideals of the New England academy it can readily be understood why the academy has drawn more closely in recent years to the higher institutions of the East. Both have been inspired largely by the same ideal and both have worked with sympathetic cooperation to realize it. The academy, too, has added its scientific studies and courses to meet the requirements of the higher institutions it serves. But like those institutions it has striven to make these more modern subjects serve the common purpose of developing strong and virile character, that shall prompt its possessor to find in the opportunities offered by the higher education something greater and more noble than the mere training for practical efficiency.

Relation of Academy to Eastern Colleges.—In this intimate relation with the college and university the academy, because of its independence, occupies a most favorable position. While it is influenced by it, it also exerts a definite influence upon the higher institution. In a sense it contributes valuable assistance to the col-

lege in standardizing the latter's admission requirements. Its courses are arranged and conducted primarily to fit its students for college. Unhampered by other demands, it is thus enabled to focus its thought and effort on this main problem. For this reason it can most fully appreciate what the college desires. And for this same reason it is frequently able to make valuable suggestions to the college as to wise and necessary modifications in entrance requirements. With a long experience on which to base its judgments it can offer its advice unprejudiced by a limited equipment and curriculum or the demands of a local and sometimes short-sighted constituency. Its governing motive will be rather the limitations, possibilities, and hence best interests of the average student mind. In this connection it is interesting to note that the academy has been most reluctant to adopt the certificate plan of admission to college, but has warmly supported the system pursued by the leading universities of the East requiring regular entrance examinations of all candidates for admission. Because of its close and friendly relations with the college and its clear appreciation of the quality of work desired by the latter the academy prefers to allow the college to test for itself the quality of the work submitted.

The Academy as a Finishing School.—During recent years a significant function of the academy has been to offer an increasing number of boys the opportunity to complete their preparation for college. The majority of our public high schools are fully competent to give their students a thorough preparation of this kind. In small towns and outlying districts this is

not always possible. Boys from these localities then frequently find it desirable, if not actually necessary, to pass a year or two in schools away from home in order to make their entrance to college secure. Frequently, too, the best of high schools are dominated by the influence and requirements of those higher institutions that happen to be close at hand and to which the majority of candidates regularly apply. For this majority the preparation for college may be as thorough and complete as can be desired. But when, as often happens, boys from these schools desire to enter other and more remote institutions, they find frequently enough that their preparation does not meet in essential particulars the entrance requirements of their chosen college.

The Academy and Western Pupils.—This situation is most often found in our western and southern states when the entrance requirements of the great state universities largely, if not wholly, shape the curricula of the lower schools. The student who has successfully pursued the courses prescribed for him in these schools and who may desire to enter one of our eastern colleges or universities is apt to find himself in an awkward predicament. Further preparation he must secure; and that further preparation he must secure either from a private tutor or from some preparatory school which offers the courses that he needs. In his distress he most often turns to an eastern academy which is regularly sending its graduates to the higher institution of his choice. The increasing demand for admission to the academy by boys of this class has recently prompted the president of one of

our leading universities of the East to express the opinion that in his judgment the chief function of the academy should be to provide for the needs of this particular group.

Classes from Which the Academy Draws Students.—Not infrequently students in the midst of their high-school courses suddenly awaken to the desirability of a college education. That there are many cases of this kind is clearly evidenced by the increasing demand of the high school that all of its courses, regardless of their nature, should be accepted by the college for admission. That the eastern colleges will yield to this demand is not likely. That they can not do so without radically changing their character and ideals is clear.

Up to the time of this awakening these students have looked upon the general courses of study offered by the local school as sufficient for their needs. But with the change of objective a complete readjustment becomes necessary. Even if his local school offers in other courses the special studies he requires to gain the desired end, the student is generally unwilling to drop back and begin his work again with lower classes. Such a step involves what the Chinese would call "loss of face." It is a natural feeling; and many a boy who finds himself in this uncomfortable situation prefers to make a fresh start in some other school where he will be free from conditions that he has come to regard as real handicaps in his further school work. To these boys the academy offers many attractions.

Still another class from which the academy draws each year a few students is made up of those whose

parents look upon the academy as a desirable stepping stone between the restrictions of home or a home school and the freedom of college life. In some cases the immaturity of the boy concerned will furnish the chief argument in favor of placing him for a year or two in a large academy preparatory to his admission into the higher institution. Not infrequently the plan commends itself through the belief that the academy with its larger responsibilities and its emphasis on self-reliance and individual initiative will develop in the individual those habits of thought and work and conduct, that ability to mingle and hold his own with his fellows, so essential to one who is to get the best results from his college course. These boys constitute something of a problem to the academy. In many cases they are distinctly benefited by taking this side step, as it were, in their educational life. But with the main incentive of completing preparation for college removed, some boys, at least, find it difficult to appreciate the value of the extra intellectual opportunities afforded them. With such, the loss of intellectual momentum sustained can hardly be offset by the other gains acquired.

Finally, many boys who, for various reasons, are unable or unwilling to pursue their education beyond the secondary-school stage are convinced that the academy offers them special and valuable advantages in their preparation for life. If they are not to enjoy the opportunities of the higher education they are eager to secure something approximating at least these opportunities. This the academy supplies.

Special Attractions of Academy as a Finishing School.—In a sense, our largest and oldest academies offer to their pupils conditions and opportunities very closely paralleling those that characterized our colleges not many years ago. Here one may mingle as in college with boys representing almost all the states of the union and all classes of society. The sons of business and professional men, of artisans and farmers are here thrown together in intimate and healthful contact. The courses of study include many subjects found until recently in most of the college curricula. Some of them are still parts of the regular college courses. The instructors, generally the equals and often the superiors of the average college professor, here guide and stimulate the students' intellectual life. Extra curriculum activities tend to develop the whole man. On all sides he is surrounded by conditions that tend to broaden his outlook, quicken his mind and test and strengthen his moral fiber. Naturally enough then many promising boys are led to believe that the academy offers peculiar advantages to them in the final preparation they are to make for that life-work upon which they are so soon to enter.

From what has been said it is evident that there are many classes of boys for whom the academy presents special attractions in itself. We shall speak later of other conditions which apart from the drawing power of the academy lead so many parents to send their boys away from home to school.

CHAPTER IV

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

IN spite of the popularity and rapid growth of the public high school there are increasing evidences that it is not meeting fully the demands of the American public in the field of secondary education. No clearer evidence exists than that supplied by the advent in recent years of the private boarding-school and the increasing growth and popularity it has enjoyed. And even more recently still a new type of school has appeared, the country day school, which has sprung at once into popular favor and which bids fair to enjoy a prosperous future. These schools have arisen and spread in response to a definite not an artificial popular demand. The reasons for this demand are too many and too complicated to discuss here. But such as they are they are responsible as well for the increasing popularity of our best academies, and many of them will become apparent as we consider the advantages and disadvantages of the academy itself as a distinctive type of American school. It must be borne in mind, however, that these same causes are operative as well in enlarging that constituency from which the private boarding-school and the country day school are drawing yearly an increasing number of pupils.

We have seen that the chief purpose of the early

academy was to develop and mold the character of its students. In spite of the conspicuous changes wrought by the passing years the academy has never lost sight of this ideal. Emphasis is still placed on the development of the all-around man. Some of the influences by which this end is attained have already been briefly touched upon. A boy is largely molded by the atmosphere, or as we more commonly say, the spirit of the school of which he is a member. This spirit is in itself intangible; but it is the product of factors that can generally be determined and defined. The spirit of the academy is the result of those forces and influences in the school that make for the all-around development of the individual in mind, soul and body. Some of these are the result of definite administrative methods and policy; others owe their origin, or at least their effect, to the students themselves. Traditions and customs handed down from class to class and even from generation to generation exert a definite molding influence on the student body as a whole. These factors which count so strongly for the broadest development of the individual, are found more conspicuously in the academy and the private boarding-school than in the public school. And as far as tradition and custom are concerned they are most in evidence in the academy.

Control of Students' Time.—An institution that is able during the school year to control both the time and activities of its pupils has of necessity an appreciable advantage over the day school which controls only a portion of the time and, to a limited degree, outside activities as well. The importance of this factor

in educational life has never been more deeply felt than at the present day when the multifarious and sometimes nefarious demands of social life exert their undermining influence on the minds, morals and health of our youth. In its fight against these harmful influences the public school has a difficult task on its hands. When it can not count on the cooperation of sensible homes this task is a well-nigh hopeless one. Recognizing this fact, an increasing number of parents are turning for help to those schools where, during the school year at least, such influences are practically eliminated.

Definite restrictions placed upon the entire student body are not regarded as a serious hardship by the individual. It is only when he is singled out from others and forced to yield to restriction that he feels humiliated and grows rebellious. Hence when such general restrictions exist for all and common demands are made upon all, the individual will take up the tasks assigned him in a spirit that in itself increases his chances of success. This opportunity then to deal with the whole boy for the whole day is a most valuable educational asset.

Physical Equipment.—The leading academies of the present day are provided with material equipment unexcelled by the best of our smaller colleges. These have their direct and indirect influence on the molding of the individual student. Modern recitation buildings and well equipped laboratories enable him to do his work under helpful conditions. Faculties of generous size permit him to do that work in groups small enough to insure a liberal amount of personal attention to in-

dividual needs and yet large enough to retain the element of personal competition so valuable to individual development. Dormitory accommodations are supplied him which are a guarantee that he will be surrounded in his life and work with living conditions making for good health and clear thinking. The presence of and intimate relations with the resident instructor limit the chances of misusing time or overreaching the regulations of the school. And modern gymnasiums and extensive playing fields provide for his physical needs.

The Value of Age and Tradition.—Unquestionably age is an asset of no mean value to an institution of learning. A long and illustrious history begets traditions and ideals that exert a dominating influence on every student body over which they spread their quiet spell. The realization that generations of students have here come and gone, have here lived and worked and have here met and wrestled with the same problems that confront him to-day, supplies each student with an inspiration that nothing else can give. One has only to stand in the classic quadrangles of any of the great historic schools of England to appreciate the truth of this statement. The very youth of our own country precludes the possibility of such a wealth of historic tradition as that which surrounds these ancient English schools. They measure their history by centuries; we measure ours by scores of years at best. And yet some at least of our academies can boast of vigorous life extending well into a second century. Dummer Academy, at South Byfield, Massachusetts, recently celebrated the one hundred and fiftieth anni-

versary of its foundation; and the two Phillips academies were conceived and planned by patriots who divided their time and thought between the demands of the institutions they were creating and the great problems of state and nation incident to the revolution and the establishment of the new republic. What age and historic tradition have meant to Oxford and Cambridge Universities, and such schools as Winchester and Eton, in England, age and tradition, in a lesser but still deeply significant sense, mean to Harvard and Yale Universities and such schools as the Phillips academies in America. Rooted deeply in a past of which every true American is justly proud, a past made glorious by intellectual greatness, spiritual fervor, and patriotic devotion, these old academies offer a special attraction to those who, recognizing the good of the present age, still prize the virtues of the age that is gone and are glad to come in contact where they can with the undying spirit of those who made that age great. In the possession of this peculiar asset the academy has no competitors among the private schools and but few among the great public schools of the present day.

The Democracy of the Academy.—In one important respect the academy differs from the private boarding-school, and in a way too that makes a special appeal to the American heart. I refer to its genuine democracy, a democracy which is one of the greatest glories of the public school. Not only does the academy draw its students from an even wider range of territory than does the private school, but, unlike the latter, it draws these students from all classes of so-

ciety. Freed by its endowment from the necessity of depending solely on tuition fees for its existence, and, in most cases, possessing generous funds for aiding deserving students of limited means, it welcomes gladly the poor as well as the rich, while it points to a student body composed in the main of boys of average means. The value of a truly democratic atmosphere of this kind during the formative years of youth can not be too strongly emphasized. In itself there is a distinct educational value attaching to this opportunity for a boy to mingle on terms of equality with boys of all classes and from all sections of the country when such rewards as the school has to offer are bestowed freely on all, the only qualification being that the recipient shall have proved his individual merit and worth. Sectional as well as class lines are in this way obliterated and to the great benefit of all.

The Independence of the Academy.—Because of its unique independent position the endowed academy occupies a strong position. Neither personal aims, financial considerations or public demands, these last so often temporary and unstable, can exert an undue influence upon its policy and standards. In this respect it enjoys a distinct advantage over both the private and the public school. Managed by trustees of intelligence and pronounced ability, who give their time and best thought to its interests without financial remuneration, it is less likely than its competitors to lose sight of the true goal of education. Far better than they it can weather the storms of criticism that are likely to arise if it refuses to yield to the superficial clamor for change and novelty. For the same reason

it may, and sometimes does, fail to discern at once the real and just basis of the public's demands. But in education, especially in these days of sudden change and multitudinous novelties, conservatism is not to be regretted. And since those who guard the academy's welfare and plan for her future are practical men of affairs as well as men of high intelligence, men who have no selfish interests at stake or political ends to attain, they are pretty sure in the end to be able to feel the public pulse and plan such readjustments as may be needed to meet any sound educational demand.

The Ability of the Academy to Lead.—The obligations of an educational institution are not limited to supplying only that which the public demands, however sound such demands may be. It should lead and point the way as well. The true function of education is often more apparent to those who devote their lives to educational work than it is to those who see only its temporary and local effects. Too often the public vision is limited in range and dimmed by the shadows of narrow interests. Here the institution should lead; should indeed educate in the true sense of the word. This function is more easily performed by the academy than by either the private or the public school. For here again the independence of the academy is one of its greatest sources of strength. Even at the sacrifice of temporary popularity and numerical strength it can hold fast to an ideal, make clear to others its value, until eventually public vision has been clarified and public opinion lifted to a higher level.

Contrasting Methods of Academy and Other Boarding-Schools.—In its natural development the

academy has followed a somewhat different course from that of its nearest competitors, the private school and the so-called church school. The latter are frequently spoken of as "close schools." The term is significant. It implies restriction and restraint; and these schools place the emphasis on both. On the supposition that until he is of college age the boy should be shielded and protected the private school holds him as far as possible from the temptations that beset the pathway of youth and shuts him off from contact with conditions and influences which, in individual cases, might strain to the breaking point his developing powers of self-control. And while it restrains on the one hand it also surrounds him as best it can with influences that shall prove wholesome, uplifting and stimulating. The contact with teachers is even closer and more intimate than it is in the academy; and there is generally present an atmosphere savoring strongly of the home. That conditions such as these should make their special appeal to many parents is but natural.

The academy, on the other hand, has developed along lines that allow greater freedom to and place greater responsibility upon the individual student. Assuming that youth of the ages with which it deals must begin to test and use their own powers it grants them a definite amount of restricted freedom. Dreading for its pupils the complete freedom of college life, or that of the world of affairs, it seeks gradually to develop within them the ability to meet successfully the peculiar temptations and problems that inevitably accompany this larger freedom. Surrounding its pupils

with helpful and inspiring influences it yet grants them a reasonable amount of liberty in the use of which under wise counsel and guidance they may test and develop their own strength. This liberty is not so large as is generally supposed. Rules and regulations are not numerous or petty; but such as they are they are rigidly enforced; and the exacting demands of the class room coupled with a carefully planned schedule covering the hours of both work and play reduce to a minimum the likelihood of infringement.

"Do the work assigned you; observe the rules prescribed for you; or seek some other school." This is the general maxim laid down for its pupils by the academy; and that this is no idle threat each student early comes to realize. "Here is your opportunity," says the academy in substance to its pupils, "you may reject it if you will; but we will aid you to the best of our ability to accept it. The fruits of learning are within your reach; but you must pick them if they are to be of real and permanent value to you in later life. We will show you how these fruits may be gathered; but the process itself must be largely yours. Habits of work and thought and conduct which shall assure sound and stable character may here be developed; but such habits, if they are to be truly yours and permanent, must be developed chiefly from within. We will help you to develop them; but we can not impose them upon you against your will. Individual initiative and self-reliance are essential factors in determining success in life; the conditions which surround you encourage the development of these necessary traits of character. The school community of which

you are now a part is a small world in itself in which you will find, in lesser degree, only the same opportunities, problems and temptations you must face in later life; we will surround you with helpful and stimulating conditions; we will guide, admonish, warn and restrain; you can not plead ignorance of either opportunity or danger; but after all it must be for you to determine whether the opportunity shall be accepted and the danger avoided. And finally, the character which, under these conditions, you develop will be permanently yours because it is rooted deep within you and has been developed by your own conscious effort."

The Academy's Policy Not Best for All.—Educational institutions, like parents, are constantly seeking to discover the best methods for training and developing youth. And no thoughtful student of this perplexing problem would for a moment claim that any one method yet devised is in itself best for all. The academy itself makes no such claim. Indeed it frankly acknowledges that there are many boys, and girls as well, who are not qualified to respond to the reasonable freedom which it grants its students. Some of our leading academies state clearly in their published catalogues that they do not desire pupils who still require excessive personal oversight or the routine of the schoolroom to enforce proper habits of study. Maturity can not always be measured by age, and hence these schools do not attempt to say at what age the individual is best fitted to assume the responsibilities of academy life. It is clearly recognized that the claims of individuals to be qualified to meet the test

will be determined by personal character, home training and other influential factors. And so it frequently happens that boys of thirteen and fourteen will meet this test better than will some, at least, of their mates of more advanced years. But if the test is not satisfactorily met there is little effort made by the academy to hold the individual in the school. Other schools are better able to give him what he needs; and to other schools he is asked to go.

It is in this connection that the academy is perhaps most often and most justly criticized. Many parents feel that it is the duty of the school to which they entrust their children to see to it that these children are completely shielded, so far as that is ever possible, from all those common temptations and dangers which ever beset the pathway of youth. And they seem to believe further that since the average boy is not by nature overfond of study it is the business of the school to hold him and struggle with him, for years if necessary, until he will study. In their judgment it is a serious mistake for the school to presume to drop such a boy from its number, a mistake calculated to place upon the boy an indelible stigma and upon his parents unnecessary humiliation if not disgrace.

Attitude of Parents and Academy Contrasted.—As the parent views the problem this is not an unnatural attitude. From the view-point of the school it is not justified. Were the academy the only school, or the only type of school to which this pupil who has not yet found himself could go, there would be much to say in defense of the parents' position. Such, how-

ever, is not the case. Hundreds of good schools are ready and eager to deal with just such boys as these. And more often than not the change of school is just the one thing most needed to bring the individual to appreciate his own shortcomings and to give him that fresh impetus necessary to insure ultimate success. There can be no permanent stigma then attaching to this act. The failure of a pupil at this early stage of his development may be due to lack of intellectual ability or, more often, to unwillingness or inability to use that ability right. Just where the trouble lies can not easily be determined in many cases. But if an unpleasant truth must be brought home to a boy it is far better for him that this should be done in the days of his immaturity than later in college or elsewhere when habits have been definitely formed and character is largely set. From such a shock in those later years he may indeed never fully recover.

And so the academy with its large numbers and independence does not hesitate to send many of its pupils each year to the smaller and closer schools which it believes are better suited, for the time at least, to the individual needs of those concerned. This fact in itself is apt to create the impression that there exists in the academy life an abnormal amount of freedom and moral laxity. Nothing could be further from the truth. Moral weaknesses will exist wherever boys are thrown together in large numbers. But the great majority of those who are thus dropped from the school represent pupils who can not or will not meet the intellectual tests demanded of them. With the "incor-

rigibly vicious," as our early educators termed them, the academy, like the best of the private schools, makes short work.

Mature Boys Naturally Prefer Academy.—Under such conditions it is natural that the academy should appeal perhaps most strongly to the mature and older boy. That this is true is evidenced by the average age of the graduating classes in our largest academies. This average will be found to range from one to one and a half years higher than that obtaining in the private schools. The reason mentioned above, however, is not the only one to account for this high average. The fact that many students enter the academy for the last year or two only of the course is an influential factor. Still another is found in the circumstance that a fair percentage of the student body is made up of working boys, boys of limited financial means, who somewhat late in life have found it possible for the first time to secure an education or have had awakened within them the desire to secure one. If these two last classes are eliminated the general average will be found to be only slightly in excess of the common average found in the private school.

Recent Steps Taken to Attract Younger Boys.—In recent years our leading academies have taken steps that are already lowering this average. Not only are they limiting the number of those admitted for the last year only of the course, but they are also providing for the youngest boys in the lower classes conditions and influences somewhat closely approximating those provided by the closer schools for the entire student body. Special buildings are now provided with school-

room facilities for study, with a maximum amount of personal supervision and direction and with a very definite home atmosphere. As a result increasingly large numbers of students are entering these schools for the full four-year course. The transition from the restrictions of home to the limited freedom of a large school is thus more gradually and more safely made. The percentage of new boys each year grows correspondingly smaller; and the larger and more stable body of students enlisted for the full school course makes for greater solidarity and increasing effectiveness in the maintenance of traditions and ideals. These modifications have been found necessary to prevent the academy from becoming more and more a mere finishing school. Their justification is clearly evidenced by the increasing number of those who seek the advantages offered by this type of school.

The Public School and Politics.—One of the greatest evils that beset our public-school system to-day is its close, and so often unfortunate, connection with politics. "Keep" or "take the public schools out of politics" is the campaign cry of thoughtful and public-spirited citizens again and again in municipal campaigns. This is not a trumped-up rally cry adopted for campaign purposes. It voices the sentiments of all honest and patriotic citizens who place the common welfare above party aims, and who are unwilling that the intellectual and moral welfare of their children should become a mere plaything in the hands of unscrupulous politicians. And it calls attention as well to one of the gravest dangers that threaten our national life. For if the education of our children and hence the

character of our coming citizens are to be jeopardized by the selfish whims of political tricksters or even by those of cleaner morals who yet bow to a nefarious "spoils system" we may well be anxious as we look forward to the future.

The academy is, fortunately, free from political control and political interference. Regardless of politics and politicians its courses of study are arranged, its instructors engaged and held and its policy determined and steadily pursued.

Value of Independence to Teacher and Pupil.—The value of this to teachers and pupils alike can not be overestimated. To the teacher it insures permanency of tenure and freedom from interference so long as he does well the work required of him; and it insures for him too that opportunity to lead his own individual life, do his own individual thinking and grow in his own individual way, as he could not do were his position dependent upon the politicians and political machines of his immediate locality. Unquestionably he will be a better teacher for this independence. And unquestionably too many of the best teachers prefer the assured stability which an academy position offers to the uncertainty which must always accompany positions in public schools subject to political influence and control.

Nor is the teacher the only one to profit by this stability. For many causes, and not always political ones, teachers in the public schools are constantly dropping out or changing from school to school. Frequently these changes occur during the school year. While, therefore, such changes may bring a definite gain or

promotion to the teachers concerned, they involve a real hardship and generally a measurable loss to the pupils. The steady intellectual progress that should characterize the school life of the student is seriously impaired. New methods of work must often be accepted, new conditions faced, new points of view developed, in a word, fresh starts must be made. Loss of time, and what is worse, loss of momentum naturally result; and such losses are serious.

Here the academy student has a distinct advantage, for the faculty changes during the school days of the individual pupil are generally so slight as to be practically unappreciable. From an educational standpoint permanency of tenure on the part of its teaching force is one of the most valuable assets that any institution of learning can possess.

Appeal of Academy to Teachers.—The life of a teacher in one of our leading academies does not differ greatly from that of a college instructor. Unlike the public-school teacher, as we have seen, his position is reasonably secure and he may look forward confidently to a permanent life-work provided he does not allow his own efficiency to become impaired. Nor is he beset with the harassing and petty demands usually made upon him in the private school. Duties outside of the class room he has, of course, but these duties are not generally exacting. He is given the time and the opportunity to grow. Indeed he is definitely encouraged to do so in the belief that thereby he will increase his own value to the school. Not infrequently teachers are encouraged to pass years of study or travel abroad and special and generous provision is made by the

academy authorities to make this possible for them. The broadening of the life and vision of their instructors is a definite policy of our best academies.

This policy is not generally possible in the private school where constant and exacting demands are made on the teacher's time and thought. The intimate relations existing between teachers and pupils clearly limit the time for and the range of intellectual growth. For these reasons the academy can command teachers of greater ability and efficiency than can its competitors. It is not at all uncommon for the best teachers in our leading academies to turn deaf ears to calls to more lucrative positions in private schools; and not infrequently these calls are unheeded even when made to positions, more distinguished in the public eye, in colleges and universities. This is often true in the cases of men of pronounced intellectual ability and promise; it is even more true of those who find in the teacher's profession an opportunity for real service and who enter upon it with something of the spirit of the missionary. To men of this latter class it is a self-evident truth that youth is primarily the period of character building. Youth in school years is far more impressionable, more plastic than in the later college years. Here then is where example and influence count most strongly. And here in consequence is where the teacher imbued with the spirit of service finds his largest field of usefulness.

What this means to the academy student can hardly be overstated. Youth is distinctly a period of hero worship; and the teacher of intellectual power and moral worth, of sympathy and tact, frequently be-

comes for the individual boy a more potent educational force than all the other agencies and influences that the school supplies. Brought into close and daily contact with his pupils he is able to discern their weaknesses and to render effective aid in the struggle for mastery and strength. Knowing the dangers and pitfalls of student life he can warn the unwary and check the headstrong. In the class room, and even more perhaps outside, he is friend, counselor and guide. And by the very joy that he displays in this life of service to his fellows he is often able to reveal to his youthful admirer a vision of the eternal values of life and an appreciation of life's true worth. Many a mature man, as memory carries him back to the school days of his youth, will recall with gratitude some individual teacher who first inspired him with an ideal and helped him develop the strength to attain it.

In the selection of its teachers the academy justly exercises the greatest care, clearly recognizing that its strength or weakness and ultimately its success or failure will be determined very largely by the character of its teaching force.

The Religious Element in the Academy.—No thoughtful person can fail to be impressed with and to deplore the steady disappearance of the religious element from our public schools. Definite religious instruction is not permitted. Even the Bible scarcely occupies a foothold. From the nature of conditions that confront us in America to-day this situation is perhaps necessary. It is doubtful whether it can be helpfully altered. But however much one may recognize the necessity of such a state of affairs no one

of religious conviction and prophetic foresight can peer ahead into the future without serious misgiving. Many indeed are disposed to admit that even in this day and generation we are beholding in the growing superficiality, lack of reverence and absence of ideals among our youth the sure effects of this policy.

In the academy moral and religious training have never been fully separated. The religious fervor of the founders finds its modern expression in the agencies employed to inculcate religious truth and to awaken religious zeal. The academy authorities frankly recognize this as one of the greatest obligations that rest upon them. In this respect the position of the academy differs little from that of the best of the private schools.

Naturally the methods employed to emphasize the religious element will vary according to the character of the individual institution concerned. The sectarian academy provides for this important element in the life of its pupils in a way best suited to the peculiar tenets of the denomination it represents. Those that are non-sectarian, and such are the largest, follow broader but no less definite policies. In many the study of the Bible finds a regular place in the school curriculum. In all, religious influences are freely thrown about the pupils and religious truths are constantly expounded. Prominent clergymen fill in turn the chapel pulpit. Church attendance is required. The daily morning chapel service gives a religious impetus to the day's work and play. The Christian Association and other voluntary religious organizations of the stu-

dents themselves stimulate and strengthen the general religious life. Voluntary classes for Bible study and the discussion of life problems exert their helpful religious influence. And practical religion is more and more widely revealed in the increasing number of boys who, during their school days, minister to the needs of those less favored than themselves. This emphasis which the academy thus places so definitely on religion awakens a ready response in the hearts of many American parents.

Value of Routine.—One of the chief functions of the preparatory school must always be to develop among its pupils systematic habits of work and thought. It is recognized by all that the individual subjects taught may be of little if any use to the pupil in later life. Many of these are necessary foundations for more advanced and specialized work still to be pursued. A few may have an immediate and practical value. Some, however, are sure to be early discarded and largely forgotten. But in all of these the opportunity is presented of inculcating systematic habits of thought and methods of work; and without these no boy can hope to attain success in any line of endeavor. A common aim and a fixed and steady daily routine for all will do more to develop such habits than will almost any other agency that can be employed. A boy easily falls into the current about him, and when that current flows steadily and strongly toward a definite outlet he is carried along in spite of himself. Nor is the gain from this purely intellectual; it is even more a moral one. Because of its traditions,

its singleness of aim and its freedom from political and financial interference, the academy supplies such a current as this in a unique degree.

Methods of Caring for Physical Needs of Pupils. —In these days the physical development of our youth claims the serious attention of educators not only in the preparatory schools but in our higher institutions as well. The present craze for athletics is sure to lead every boy of athletic ability to secure all, if not more than all, the healthful physical exercise that the welfare of his body demands. With him the obligation of the school is not to encourage but to curb, a difficult task at best, but especially difficult for the public school.

But the bulk of the student body requires different treatment. The youths who most easily neglect physical exercise are generally those who most need it. These boys must be encouraged, or better, required to take exercise regularly and along those lines best suited to their needs. While this truth is generally recognized, the academies, with a few of the leading private schools, have earliest and best given it practical application. This they have been able to do chiefly because of their superior material equipment and their full control of the pupils' time.

The department of physical education in the academy is in charge of a trained expert. Frequently this man has had the advantage of a medical training as well. Not only does he supervise and direct the athletic activities of the school, but upon him rests the oversight of the health and special physical needs of the individual student. As he deals with youth at the

period of most rapid growth and pronounced physical change his work is of the greatest importance to the school. To aid him in his labors he is supplied with an equipment and facilities rarely surpassed even in the colleges. An up-to-date gymnasium equipped with modern apparatus provides for the needs of the student body during the winter months, and, indeed, throughout the year for that smaller group which requires special attention and direction in the proper development of their bodies. Numerous and extensive playing fields are available for the use of the student body as a whole, and the student body is required to make use of them under definite restrictions as to the character of the exercise and the amount of time consumed.

A significant and most interesting development in modern school life is found in a growing tendency to pull down from his flimsy pedestal the artificial athletic "hero," to force the retiring book-worm to get out into the open and develop a sound body, and to bring both to realize that normal, healthful athletic activity is the duty and privilege of all. Under such conditions a generous athletic equipment becomes of immense value not only in contributing to the building of sound bodies and the safeguarding of health, but in refreshing and quickening the intellect and in developing those qualities of mind and body that make for rugged moral strength. The fact that athletics is regarded as a normal and necessary part of the school régime tends strongly to check distorted student opinion and to increase in the general life of the institution itself the value of this essential factor in modern education.

CHAPTER V

THE FUTURE OF THE ACADEMY

A STUDY of the history of education in this and other lands prompts one to be cautious in attempting to make predictions for the future. Especially is this true with relation to the United States, a country so unique, composed of such diverse elements and still so definitely in the process of growth and expansion. At present we differ from most of the older countries of Europe in having no definite scheme of education of which our numerous types of institutions are working parts. We are still feeling our way, as it were, toward a definite educational process and a definite educational goal. The demands of yesterday are not those that press most heavily to-day; and it is not likely that those of to-day will fully satisfy the public of to-morrow. Changes and readjustments will continue for some time at least and our numerous institutions of learning must be prepared to adapt themselves to such changes as give clear evidence of permanency and worth if they are not to be supplanted by others. We can prophesy of the future only on the basis of past and present development and tendencies. On this basis some things seem fairly clear; others must of necessity remain largely uncertain. Only within these proper limitations are we justified in

attempting to predict what is to be the future of the American academy. And this discussion will be limited to that type of academy which has claimed our special attention thus far.

The steady and wholesome growth of our best academies in recent years holds out distinct promise for the future. Conditions which have led an increasing number of our American youth to seek the advantages of boarding-schools seem not destined to disappear. Rather are they likely to become more wide-spread and more active. With the passing years, therefore, it is fair to prophesy that the number of prospective pupils from whom the academy draws its students will steadily increase. A reaction in favor of country life is not likely seriously to curtail the size of our large cities. Nor is it probable that within these cities themselves the old-fashioned home will grow into greater prominence. The distractions of city life will remain; and so long as they remain the stimulating intellectual and moral atmosphere so definitely necessary in school days can not well exist. The great public schools will find it increasingly difficult to satisfy the multifarious demands made upon them. More and more they must yield to the public demand and shape their courses to meet the popular will. As the great "melting pot" in American life they must continue to make and shape the citizenship of our country. More and more they must heed the demands for education that will enable their pupils, not later than the close of their high-school course, to enter at once upon some chosen life-work. Practical and vocational studies are sure to occupy an increasing space in the curriculum

of the public high school. And with this development those who are aiming for college and the higher education will be driven more and more to seek their preparation at the boarding-school.

Nor does it seem likely that future conditions and developments will bring back into the public high school an increasing number of men teachers. The trend is still the other way. Even in the matter of principalships women are in places supplanting men. Whether these women will prove as efficient as their predecessors in office is a debatable question. Whether they will improve or deteriorate in quality with the passing years can not be foretold. At present it would seem that not only are women rapidly supplanting men as teachers, but that in increasing number those of comparative youth and immaturity are filling the teachers' chairs. Those parents who find in such conditions a definite objection to placing their children in the public high school will, more than formerly, turn to the boarding-school for the conditions they desire.

The millennium is still too far away to justify the hope that a more definite religious note will soon be struck in the education supplied by the public high school. The present tendency is otherwise. And even if there should come a reaction in favor of a more definite religious note in our public-school teaching it is difficult to comprehend what kind of religious teaching could be provided to meet satisfactorily conditions that must be faced. Sectarian schools supported by public money are not in keeping with our American traditions or ideals. Unless we are blind we are not likely to accept such a solution as this. And yet since

we feel so strongly on this subject we are compelled so definitely to limit religious instruction in the public schools or so to broaden it that the real religious element if not actually concealed is likely to lose its inspiration and its strength. For those who still hold fast to the importance of the religious element in education the boarding-school will continue to make a strong appeal.

Effect on Academy of Development of Higher Institutions.—The development of our higher institutions of learning is sure to exert a definite influence on the preparatory school. Universities are growing yearly in size and scope: colleges are not only increasing in size but are incorporating many of the university methods and ideals; and the scientific and technical schools have always been disposed to place the emphasis almost wholly on the work of the curriculum and to the exclusion of other influences and interests. In this general scheme of development common to all, the tendency is clearly to place the emphasis with increasing definiteness on the intellectual side of student life. Moral training and influence will become less pronounced with the passing years; and such moral influences as exist will be left more and more in the hands of the student body to create, develop and control. Already there is a growing conviction among college men that many of the most valuable features of the college life of their day are passing away. Conditions and influences which, including both the intellectual and moral elements, laid stress on the development of well-rounded character are no longer so pronounced in college life as they were not many years

ago. And to those who believe, as many do, that these factors are essential in true education, not the college but the academy seems destined best to supply them. The academy seems likely, therefore, to fulfill in coming years one important function of the college of our fathers.

From present tendencies in our American life it would seem to be evident that the boarding-school, be that school academy, church school, or private school, is destined to play an increasingly important part in the field of our secondary education. Not only will it draw on a larger constituency, but it will add to its own attractiveness and efficiency from year to year and on its own merit alone offer a stronger appeal to American youth. Age, prestige and enlarged resources will all contribute to this end. And the academy will be perhaps the greatest gainer.

So long as this nation remains a republic and so long as democracy in its best sense remains a cherished ideal of the American people the academy will make its special appeal to the American heart. In an address delivered recently at the exercises of Founders' Day at one of our oldest New England academies, a distinguished speaker made this significant statement as to the function and place in our American educational life of the academy:

"For one hundred and thirty-five years this academy has been a potent force toward union in this country. Gathering its sons from every state and territory, it has increasingly taught them the lesson of the essential oneness of American life and the lesson of mutual respect and sympathy owed by all Americans to each

other. The need of such teaching has by no means passed. Although time and modern invention and the civil war have removed many of the dangers of disunion which threatened our country in the days of the founders, the need of the centralizing forces of mutual understanding and good will toward all parts of our now enormous country remains ever pressing. In these days when educational institutions are growing so fast throughout the land, it must be remembered that no local high school, however good, and no state university, however effective, can take the place of an academy which, by history and tradition, serves all states and all districts alike."

We would do well not to ignore the significance of this phase of democracy. And when there is added to it, as there is in the life of the academy, conditions which make it possible, as in our public schools, for rich boys and poor boys and boys of average means to meet and compete on terms of real equality we have a democracy in its finest sense, a democracy that appeals to the American heart. The tendencies in our American life to-day give clear indication that a school which insists on maintaining in its life and opportunity the traditional democracy, so highly prized by the American people, will meet in the years to come an increasing need and exercise an increasing influence for good in the life of this republic.

Military Schools in America

By L. R. Gignilliat

Military Schools in America

CHAPTER I

ORIGIN AND CLASSIFICATION

MILITARY training as an adjunct to education is no modern thing. The greatest civilization the world has ever known, that of the ancient Greeks, was attained by a system of education under which every boy for at least two years of his life was given a course practically identical with that of our best military schools of to-day. This training was given him not merely that he might be versed in the art of war, but that he might acquire the disciplined will, the power of endurance, the sturdy physique and the moral qualities of loyalty, devotion to duty and self-sacrifice that become the citizen no less than the soldier.

Influence of West Point.—In this country our first military school was naturally an expression of our military rather than our educational needs. Washington, obliged to look to Europe for the skill in military engineering required in our war for independence, felt very keenly the need for a national military academy, and in a message to Congress strongly advocated the establishment of such a school. Due primarily to his influence, the United States Military Academy was

founded at West Point in 1802. West Point not only supplied the needed instruction for officers, but also demonstrated that military training, when coupled with education, possessed some distinct advantages over the civilian school in the discipline of the moral character and the bodily development of the boy. Hence West Point has become the inspiration in the United States for many schools that have used the military system primarily to train young men for well-rounded citizenship.

The First Private Military Schools.—The first private military school in America was founded by Captain Alden M. Partridge in 1820. It was known as the American Literary, Scientific and Military Academy, and is now Norwich University. Captain Partridge was a professor at West Point from 1806 to 1815, acting superintendent the greater part of the time from 1808 to 1815, and superintendent from 1815 to 1816.

It is fair to assume that even in those initial years of the national military academy before its present ideals and methods were evolved he saw to his satisfaction the benefit that boys destined for civil life might also derive from military training.

Later private military schools are indebted to him for "demonstrating beyond cavil that military exercises and duties are not inconsistent with ardent devotion and the highest attainments in literary and scientific studies."*

In 1838 another military school for civilians came into existence, a school destined to achieve fame as

* *Military Systems and Education,* Barnard.

the West Point of the Confederacy. In that year the Virginia Military Institute opened its gates to boys of the Old Dominion under the superintendency of Colonel Francis M. Smith, a graduate of West Point. This institution was conducted from the start on the West Point plan. It demonstrated the thoroughness of its military training by furnishing to the Confederate army one-tenth of all of its officers.

Colonel Sylvanus M. Thayer, superintendent of West Point from 1816 to 1831, is perhaps more than any other man responsible for that blending of military, intellectual and moral training that has enabled the graduates of West Point to achieve distinction in civil no less than in military pursuits. To him, therefore, as well as to the military-school founders already mentioned, those schools that look to West Point for methods and ideals are indebted.

Aid from the National Government.—The national government has for a number of years encouraged military training in educational institutions by detailing officers of the army as professors of military science and by issuing arms and equipment to schools and colleges that met certain stipulated conditions and requirements. Except from the essentially military schools, however, where students are in attendance especially for the benefits of such training, the government in the past has not realized very satisfactory returns from its investment.

In the Land Grant colleges which are required by law to afford military training, faculties as a rule were unfavorable to this form of instruction, regarding it as a waste of time. As would be expected under such

circumstances, the training was perfunctorily given. The students got excused from it if they could do so by hook or crook, and failing to get excused, entered into the drills so half-heartedly that they gained little or nothing from them.

Military Spirit Fostered.—Thus during the many years that interest in military matters has been at such low ebb in America, a few essentially military schools have been practically the only agency outside of West Point that has kept alive the spirit of the soldier among the youth of the country. Just now of course there is a great revival of military interest throughout the nation. Under the stimulus of the legislation creating the new Reserve Officers' Training Corps, the Land Grant colleges are taking steps to put their military courses on a par of efficiency with other departments. Universities that have not heretofore given military training are introducing it, and many high schools throughout the country are forming cadet corps. The coordination of military training with education, however, is an art in itself. It can not be acquired overnight.

Advantages of the Essentially Military Schools.—The essentially military school that has behind it many years of experience and tradition in applying the soldier's training to the schoolboy therefore finds itself to-day occupying in the military educational field the advantageous position of a veteran among raw recruits, able to conduct with confidence and assurance a form of training that must necessarily be for some years in the experimental stage in most institutions.

The essentially military school also possesses a very

great advantage over other institutions with military departments in the fact that students of the former are under military discipline twenty-four hours out of the twenty-four. Military training that is limited to a few hours of drill per week is beneficial to a certain extent if thoroughly given under an experienced man, but it can not result in that ingrained subconscious discipline of mind and body that comes from the constant observance of the soldier's attitude toward duty, not only on the drill field, but in the class room, in the dormitory, at mess and on the playground.

Classification of Military Schools and Colleges.—Recognizing the differences in the extent and scope of the military training that it is possible to give in the various types of institutions, the government has established the following classification:

Class MC.—Comprises colleges and universities which confer a degree and which are essentially military in character. By "essentially military" is meant that the students are quartered in barracks and are constantly in uniform and under discipline.

Class C.—Includes colleges and universities not essentially military, that is, in which the military instruction is confined to a few drills and lectures per week, the students appearing in uniform and being under military discipline only at such times.

Class M.—Designates the institutions of the preparatory class which do not confer degrees, but which, like Class MC, are essentially military in character.

Class SM.—Comprehends all institutions which afford military instruction and which are not included in the first three classes.

For example, such institutions as the Virginia Military Institute and Norwich University, which confer degrees and at the same time maintain their students constantly under military discipline, fall in Class MC.

Yale, Cornell, Wisconsin and other colleges which afford military training to certain of their students, but which are not essentially military in organization, fall in Class C.

St. John's (Manlius), Culver Military Academy and similar institutions which are preparatory schools with their students living in barracks and under a continuous military régime, fall in Class M.

The high schools, which are not military in organization, but which include military drill in the high-school curriculum, fall in Class SM.

The Type of School Under Discussion.—The military schools with which this discussion is chiefly concerned fall in Class M. The private schools have adopted the military training of their own choice, believing it to be a valuable educational instrument.

They recognize that the average American boy, while generally intelligent, fearless and self-reliant, is at the same time impatient of restraint, undisciplined and lacking in symmetrical physical development. Their experience has indicated that these defects are best remedied by military training with its exactness and its precision, its rigid adherence to system and to discipline and its enforced exercise and regularity of life.

Present Value to Government of Military Training in Schools.—While these schools utilize military instruction as a means to an end and not as an end in

itself, they, like the essentially military colleges, turn out some hundreds of young men annually who are thoroughly disciplined and well instructed in the care and handling of troops. These men would, in the event of war, prove competent officers of volunteers.

Even in colleges and schools in which the military course is most limited a large number of young men receive each year at least a general idea of drill, discipline and the art of war.

When one considers the deplorable consequences that have resulted in some of our past wars from sending soldiers into the field under officers who knew little or nothing about caring for their men and who were without knowledge of even the elementary principles of handling troops, there is little surprise that the government is willing to encourage military training in these schools and colleges.

Distinguished Colleges and Honor Schools.—The government gives this encouragement not only through the detail of officers and the issue of arms, but also by introducing a spirit of emulation. Each year it sends to schools receiving aid from the government, officers of the general staff, who make a most thorough inspection. These officers note carefully the standard of discipline and the proficiency exhibited by the students of the various institutions in their military training. As a result of this inspection the ten essentially military colleges that have exhibited the highest degree of excellence in their military departments are designated by the secretary of war as "distinguished institutions," and similarly, ten essentially military schools are designated as "honor schools."

Commission in the Regular Army for Honor Graduates.—Naturally this honor is highly prized. It carries with it not only prestige for the institution, but also the privilege of naming a graduate for commission as a second lieutenant in the regular army. The graduate so designated for the distinguished college may be commissioned by the president without mental examinations. The graduate of the honor school is not so favored but is given precedence over other candidates who take the examination for promotion if he makes a grade of eighty-five per cent. or above. Furthermore, by a recent Act of Congress, a certain number of appointments to West Point are allotted annually to selected graduates of honor schools.

The honor of being in the distinguished or honor class is perhaps not quite so coveted as in earlier years when the number receiving this designation was comparatively small. Beginning in 1904, the number was limited to six; in 1908, it was increased to eight; in 1909, to ten, and finally in 1914, to twenty. Prior to 1914 the selection was made from schools and colleges without discrimination and those selected were all designated as "distinguished institutions."*

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* Schools and colleges designated as "Distinguished Institutions" when number so designated annually was limited to six: Culver Military Academy, 1906, 1907; Pennsylvania Military College, 1904, 1905, 1906, 1907; St. John's College (Annapolis), 1905; St. John's School (Manlius), 1904, 1905, 1906, 1907; Shattuck School, 1904, 1906, 1907; South Carolina Military Academy (The Citadel), 1904, 1905; Virginia Military Institute, 1904, 1905, 1906, 1907.

Schools and colleges which have received the designation of "Distinguished Institution" three or more times prior to 1914: Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, 1910, 1911, 1912, 1913; Culver Military Academy, 1906, 1907, 1908,

The Reserve Officers' Training Corps.—The most recent and interesting development of military training in civil institutions is the Reserve Officers' Training Corps authorized by the Act of Congress, approved June 3, 1916.

Under this act the government seeks to train reserve officers of the army in schools and colleges affording military courses.

Senior units are authorized in higher institutions conferring a degree, also in those essentially military schools which do not confer degrees but which have been designated as "honor" schools for three preceding years, or for the last two consecutive years and on one previous year, provided further that the school so designated shall have enrolled not less than one hundred students over sixteen years of age.

Junior units are authorized in secondary schools to which officers of the army are detailed and which maintain in uniform and under military instruction not less than one hundred physically fit male pupils of fourteen or more years of age.

Members of the junior units assume no obligation

1909, 1910, 1911, 1912, 1913; New Mexico Military Institute, 1909, 1910, 1911, 1912, 1913; Norwich University, 1904, 1905, 1906, 1907, 1908, 1909, 1910, 1912, 1913; Pennsylvania Military College, 1904, 1905, 1906, 1907, 1908, 1909, 1910, 1911, 1912, 1913; St. John's College (Annapolis), 1904, 1905, 1909, 1910, 1913; St. John's Military Academy (Delafield), 1911, 1912, 1913; St. John's School (Manlius), 1904, 1905, 1906, 1907, 1908, 1909, 1910, 1911, 1912, 1913; Shattuck School, 1904, 1906, 1907, 1908, 1909, 1912, 1913; The Citadel (South Carolina Military Academy), 1904, 1905, 1908, 1909, 1910, 1911, 1912, 1913; Virginia Military Institute, 1904, 1905, 1906, 1907, 1908, 1909, 1910, 1911, 1912, 1913.

These schools are arranged alphabetically by the War Department. No statement is made of their relative merit.

to the government beyond that of pursuing the prescribed course of study while in school. Members of the senior units, who elect to continue the course during the last two years of the four prescribed for the senior course, obligate themselves to attend at least two summer camps.

On graduation the members of the senior unit may be commissioned by the president as reserve officers for a period of ten years, and as temporary second lieutenants of the regular army for a period of six months.

Members of the junior unit receive certain credits for their military work if they join senior units in higher institutions of learning.

Provision is made to furnish members of both senior and junior units with uniforms and for the payment of commutation of subsistence amounting to about nine dollars per month to members of the senior units who elect the advanced course. The theoretical and practical work prescribed by the government for units of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps is the same for both the essentially military institutions and for those that do not maintain their students constantly under military discipline. The essentially military institutions, however, will be able to approximate much more closely the West Point standard in the training of reserve officers.

Explicit information as to the conditions under which educational institutions may qualify for units of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps and the steps necessary to secure government assistance in the form

of arms, equipment and military instructors is fully set forth in circulars obtainable from the Adjutant General of the Army, Washington, D. C.

CHAPTER II

THE DAILY LIFE OF THE CADET IN THE STRICTLY MILITARY SCHOOL

THE daily routine of the cadet may not be fully understood without some preliminary reference to the organization of the school. When the new cadet reports for duty he is assigned to a company composed of from fifty to eighty cadets. He takes his place in the company whenever it is formed for drill, or for other purposes. He finds that he is one of a subdivision of seven men and a corporal, known as a squad, and that he is under the immediate direction of this corporal. He finds further that his mistakes are corrected by other cadets who stand behind the company in what is called the file closers. These are cadet officers and non-commissioned officers, who have been in the school one or more years, and who have shown ability to command and especial aptitude for military instruction. The new cadet discovers also that if he is late or absent he is reported by the first sergeant, also a cadet who either calls the roll or receives reports from the corporal in charge of each squad. He learns that the cadet captain takes direct command of the company, but that there is also attached to it in an advisory capacity a member of the faculty known as the tactical officer. This officer inspects the company occa-

sionally, but the cadet captain inspects it at every formation to see that all cadets are neat and well-groomed.

As soon as the new cadet begins to get the spirit of things he finds himself believing very firmly that his own company is the best of the two to six companies which form the cadet battalion. He becomes inspirited with the zeal to keep it so and tries to express this in his efforts at drill and perhaps also by going out for the company teams in athletics. It will probably not be very long before he has some aspirations to become one of those who are doing the correcting in the company rather than to remain one of the corrected. If the new cadet has distinct musical ability he may, after learning the rudiments of the drill, obtain an assignment to the band. For the greater part of the year the band practises during the period that the companies are at drill.

Together with his assignment to the company the new cadet receives his assignment to his dormitory, which in the military school is designated as a barrack. His room, which he shares with another cadet of about his own age, he finds is in a "division" of barracks and that this division, like the company, is under the command of a cadet officer. An officer of the faculty, however, is also quartered in each hall of the barracks and gives it his supervision.

His First Days at the School.—The new cadet's first day at the school is ordinarily quite fully occupied in receiving these assignments and undergoing a thorough medical examination at the hands of the surgeon and a series of strength tests and measurements

given by the physical director. During the latter his manner of standing, the way he carries his shoulders and head are carefully noted and special remedial work is prescribed if necessary.

Learning to be a soldier while in citizen's clothes is rather a depressing thing. At Culver, therefore, the new cadet is immediately provided with a ready-made uniform pending the completion of his made-to-measure outfit, measurements for which are taken after he has acquired his "set-up."

Another thing that has been found desirable at Culver is to have the new cadets and a few selected drill masters report a week in advance of the old cadets. This week is devoted to military instruction, to the study of the regulations and to putting the new cadet "on to the ropes" so that his greenness and awkwardness have been largely overcome before the remainder of the battalion reports for duty. This preliminary week also affords the opportunity for a series of tests of the new cadet's mental aptitude and for his very careful academic classification before studies actually begin.

Beginning the Regular Routine.—The second week, therefore, finds him prepared to take up the full daily routine of military-school life. This is very systematically laid out. The essentially military school is a firm believer in the theory that better results can be obtained with a boy by plenty of wholesome occupation than by excessive admonition. He is kept constantly occupied, be it at study, drill or play, from the first bugle in the morning until taps at night.

As a result of his busy day he goes to bed healthfully tired at night.

His Hour of Rising.—The early to bed and early to rise precept is rigidly enforced in the cadet's life. He is awakened each morning at six by the peremptory boom of the cannon and the penetrating notes of the trumpet. In this military method of waking people up he finds little to encourage a second nap. He is seldom known to treat it as most boys do the maternal summons when at home. In ten minutes he is in his place on the company formation ground engaged in filling his lungs with the fresh morning air in response to his captain's commands of "Inhale! Exhale!" or in circling his arms or bending his legs in the gyrations of the setting-up drill. With this limbering up he will find it easier during the remainder of the day to walk and sit and stand as a soldier should, and in the course of time an erect carriage will become as natural to him as slouching is to the average boy.

Taking Care of His Room.—After ten minutes of exercising he returns to his room, puts his own effects in order and makes up his bed. This is a part of the plan of teaching him to be systematic and orderly. Luxuries have no place in the cadet barrack; the rooms are comfortable enough but simple to a degree. When the cadet finds that he must do his own tidying up the simplicity of the furnishings appeals to him as eminently sensible. If he is "orderly" he is responsible not only for his own things, but must also sweep the room. He relinquishes this duty with no great unwillingness to his roommate on alternate weeks.

He finds also that as orderly he is for the time being in immediate command of the fourteen by fourteen square feet in which he lives and must enforce the regulations therein. If anything goes wrong within that space he is held accountable, and even though he is not himself the offender, he is required to place the responsibility. That is not so hard as it may seem, for if some other cadet is responsible he is not in fairness going to let the orderly suffer. The idea of personal responsibility together with the principle of exercising command is thus inculcated from the very beginning. In fact, things are so organized in the military school that responsibility may be immediately and definitely placed for anything that may occur at any time or place.

When the inspection call sounds, the cadet, having straightened up his room and completed his toilet, stands at attention in front of his bed. The cadet hall officer, accompanied once a week by the tactical officer in charge of the division, enters the room, looks as searchingly for dust as if it were something he had lost, glances around to see that everything is in its place and passes briskly on to the other rooms in the division.

This cadet, having been tried in the fire of several years' military service and his military mettle having been assayed to the satisfaction of the authorities, has been advanced from the limited sphere of commanding a single room on alternate weeks to full responsibility for a whole hall.

The Cadet at Mess.—As a result of the busy hour following reveille the cadet is quite ready for breakfast at seven. Mess call means that the meal is ready;

there is no such thing as straggling in five or ten minutes late. He forms and marches to mess with his company. On marching into the mess hall he goes to his table and stands until grace is asked, taking his seat at command.

Each mess consists of about ten cadets with a cadet officer at its head who is responsible for the maintenance of good order and the observance of correct table manners.

At mess there is no restriction to conversation, nor do the cadets seem particularly constrained by the fact that they must sit erect, keeping away from the backs of their chairs. Ordinarily there are so many different sections of the country represented at each mess that discussion of school matters and athletics are to some extent interspersed with more broadening exchanges of information.

The abundant and regular exercise gives the cadet an unusual appetite even for a boy. At Culver we have considered his proper subsistence a very important factor in his health and development. We furnish him a simple but most carefully balanced menu prepared in scrupulously clean tile-lined kitchens and appetizingly served in a very beautiful mess hall. The cadet's happiness and efficiency are both considerably enhanced by these special provisions.

Study Hours and Classes.—The cadet's academic day begins very shortly after breakfast. He carries quite as many studies as the boy in a civilian school and perhaps goes at them with a clearer head by reason of his daily exercise and regular hours.

Call to quarters is sounded by the trumpeter about

fifteen minutes after breakfast is over. If the cadet has no recitation the first period he goes to his room for study. No visiting between rooms is allowed during call to quarters and everything must be very quiet. Occasionally an officer passes through the barracks on inspection. A glass panel enables him to see whether or not cadets are studying (without disturbing them by opening the door).

If the cadet has a recitation he goes to the courtyard and forms with his class. The ranking cadet, or in some schools the cadet who stands highest in the class, calls the roll and reports absentees and lates to the cadet officer of the day. Three minutes after the assembly for classes the name of every absentee is known and unless an absentee is properly excused he is looked up and sent at once to class. When the cadet is marched into his class room he does not leave the military ideal with his cap and overcoat outside the door. When he enters he stands at attention until the section marcher has reported to the instructor and then takes his seat at command. When he sits, he sits erect; when he is at the board he uses it for the purpose for which it was intended and not as something to lean against, and is as soldierly in handling his pointer as in the use of his rifle, and as neat in the arrangement of his work on the board as he would be in preparing his room for an inspection. A soldierly attitude in such matters is certainly conducive to clearer thinking and expression.

Classes continue until mess call and are resumed for a time in the afternoon.

At Drill.—The drill call is sounded about three

o'clock. It continues for an hour to an hour and a half. It does not trench on time for his studies. Military training in a well-organized school might almost be said to create by its enforced system the time it uses. It cuts out the waste time in the boy's day and gives it to drill.

In the truly military school the boy soon finds that drills are not for mere show, but have a real purpose behind them. Probably his manual of arms, the handling of his rifle, is the first thing he has ever been made to do with precision and attention to details. There must be nothing slipshod about it, and it must be full of snap and spirit. In all of his close-order drills he must keep constantly on the alert, for he does not know what command is coming next and he must obey it instantly. He must not be a fraction of an instant behind his fellows. As a result, the slow-thinking boy is waked up and the inattentive boy made attentive. The obeying of command after command in time also tends to make obedience automatic.

In schools where close-order infantry drills continue day after day the cadets become very tired of them and after a time derive little benefit. At Culver a great deal of attention has been given to making the drills as varied as possible.

After the new cadet has mastered the essentials of the infantry drill a wide range of interesting practical instruction is afforded him. If he is fond of horses, and most boys are, he may take the cavalry instruction. He learns to ride without a saddle as do the troopers of the regular cavalry. He is awkward enough at first,

but it is not long before he is mounting at the gallop, or standing up on his horse as it trots around the riding hall.

Later on he learns to do more spectacular feats of horsemanship, riding two or three horses at a time. In this way he acquires a wonderful amount of muscle and agility and learns to be perfectly at home on his horse independent of artificial supports.

He also drills with the troop in the saddle and is taught the use of the saber, the carbine and the pistol.

The thing that appeals to him most, however, is the week-end hike. The long rides across the country, and the camp in the evening, with the horses on the picket line, the bacon sizzling over the camp-fire, is an experience to be remembered all his life. He learns on these hikes to take care of his own horse, to groom, to water and to feed him, to adjust his saddle on the march and to take care of himself in the field.

The mounted artillery drill is also afforded at Culver. A modern battery with its range finders, its telephonic systems of communication, its intricately constructed guns and carriages affords an attractive form of instruction to the boy of mechanical tastes. The drill of the field wireless telegraph detachment is also a source of intense interest to many boys.

The engineer company also provides a very popular and instructive form of drill. These cadets become very proficient in building spar and pontoon bridges across neighboring streams.

An important feature of the cadet's training and one that cultivates good judgment and steady nerves is rifle practise in the gallery and on the range. Marks-

men's and sharpshooters' badges are given the cadets under the same rules of qualifications as in the National Guard.

Field exercises, with instruction in scouting that train the boy to observe closely and to think for himself, come in for their share of attention, and such things as camp cooking, first aid and sanitation are by no means neglected.

It is possible only to suggest the many interesting and highly instructive features of the drill. At least brief mention should be made of the system of guard duty. Even the youngest cadet has his tour of guard duty. It is a fine experience for a boy to be placed on post as a sentinel with definite orders to enforce and to feel that he is occupying a position of trust and responsibility. The system of guard duty is made a very distinct feature at Culver. The older cadets, several of whom go on each day, as non-commissioned officers of the guard and as officer of the day, obtain a great deal of valuable executive experience. Under the direction of the officer in charge they supervise all formations, see that the day's routine is carried out as prescribed, keep all records of inspections and reports for breaches of discipline, and keep track of all cadets going on leave from the school or leaving quarters with permission during study hours. They know where every cadet in the school is during every hour of the day. The system in the officer of the day's office is as complete and as effective as that of any up-to-date business office.

The drill period frequently closes with battalion parade. The cadets are drawn up in a long motionless

line, resplendent with white cross belts and glistening brasses of the full dress equipment. The trumpeters sound retreat, the evening gun is fired and the band plays *The Star-Spangled Banner* while the national flag is impressively lowered. This ceremony is calculated to stir a boy's patriotism if anything will.

His Leisure Time.—After drill he has the same opportunities for recreation that are enjoyed by the boys of other schools and he probably enjoys it the more because of his busy day. With his absolute regularity of life and simple wholesome meals, he is always in training and it is little to be wondered at that he excels in athletics, especially in football and basket-ball, where endurance tells.

Company teams and strong inter-company rivalry afford the opportunity for many cadets to go in for athletics. At Culver, football, track, tennis, baseball, basket-ball, hockey, skating, swimming and boat-racing form the principal sports.

Cadets who have no demerits may obtain passes to go off the grounds on holidays, but the effort is made to furnish every opportunity for amusement within the limits of the academy. The recreation period is considered as important as any other part of the day and it is very carefully provided for. The gymnasium, bowling alleys, billiard and pool rooms and a moving-picture theater for Saturday nights are included in the equipment.

Entertainments and lectures are provided each week in the winter and on special occasions, such as Thanksgiving, Easter and Commencement, the friends of cadets are asked to visit the academy. The glee club

and the dramatic club perform for their benefit, exhibition drills are given and dances are held in the gymnasium. On Saturday nights the band plays during the supper hour and popular songs are sung. So, on the whole, the cadet manages to have a good deal of fun in the manner suggested and also in other ways that there is no space to describe.

On Sunday mornings he prepares his room for an especially thorough inspection during which an officer passes his white gloves over all the furniture, and sees that underclothes are neatly folded and stacked and everything carefully in its place.

After the inspection the cadet marches to church. The afternoon he has to himself for letters home or a walk in the country or any form of exercise except match games.

The Evening Hours.—In the evenings call to quarters is sounded at seven, and except on Saturday and Sunday evenings the cadet studies until nine o'clock, after which he has a half-hour in which to relax and undress before turning out his lights at nine-thirty. Hardly has the inspector passed and the orderly answered "right," meaning that he and his roommate are present and in bed, before they are both quite sound asleep.

A boy once told me that when he first entered the school he thought it was an absurd thing to send a seventeen- or eighteen-year-old boy to bed at nine-thirty, but that after a few busy days of military life he came to the conclusion that it was one of the most sensible things that was done. Nine-thirty to six is eight and one-half hours for sleep, which in most cases

seems sufficient. On Sunday mornings the cadets may sleep an hour longer.

His Bodily Development.—The changes that take place in a boy physically under this régime are very marked. The habit of standing erect with his chin drawn in fastens itself upon him. His muscles become firm and resilient; he takes on a ruddy color and a hard-as-nails look. In his appearance of physical fitness there is no comparison between the average cadet of an essentially military academy and the average boy of the civilian school. The cavalry drill is an especially fine form of exercise. I have seen many an under-developed stripling grow strong and sturdy in a few months in the riding school. If the cadet needs special developing he is put under an expert in the gymnasium. If he has some lateral curvature or a bad position of the neck or head he is given a long patient course of special remedial work with mirrors and plumb-line to guide him. I have had a number of photographs made of cadets stripped at the time of entrance and again at intervals of several months. The photographs register the most remarkable improvement physically, but even more striking in many cases is the change in physical expression; the tightening up of the lines around the mouth and the coming into the eyes of a more purposeful look.

The Acquirement of System and Order.—A lack of system and order is perhaps one of the most serious defects in American boys. A boy who has been taught to do things systematically will in his business life possess a decided advantage over boys who have not been so trained. It can not be claimed that military train-

ing will make every boy systematic and orderly but it will have this result in many cases. In other cases it will at least give the boy a better idea of the value of such things and create in him the desire ultimately to correct his own shortcomings. A great deal depends on the character of the training. If the cadet sees around him every detail of the school's administration conducted on the soundest business principles of economy and efficiency and if he himself is pursuing day after day an absolutely systematic schedule, he can not escape the effects. If also he is consistently made to practise neatness and order he will surely profit thereby.

The plan of having cadets care for their own rooms is one means adopted by the military school for affording this practise in orderly habits. A boy is much more apt to acquire the habit of neatness when required to pick up his own things than he is when he has a mother or a maid to pick them up for him.

If he merely learned, however, to clean up his room, little would be gained; but with a full schedule and the minutes at a premium he is apt to reach the point where he concludes that it would be highly desirable and a great economy of time not to have to pick up things at all. This state of affairs he may bring about by schooling himself to put articles back where they belong the instant he is through with them. He is encouraged somewhat in this more helpful view of the situation if the inspections instead of being made at stated times when he is notified to be ready for them are made at odd intervals; just after he has changed his clothes and rushes off to drill, for instance.

He is further helped if the furniture is of special construction, not only with a place for everything, but with a place to which things may be returned with the minimum of delay.

At Culver a great deal of thought has been given to the designing of such furniture. It is not only very compact, but any article may be removed without disturbing others. There are no drawers to be mussed up, but subdivided shelves for each separate kind of clothing, except outer clothing, which is hung so that no garment is in front of or in the way of another.

That boys do backslide and disappoint their mothers when they go home from military schools is true, but if the training has been good they will show its effects after the reaction that accompanies a release from close discipline is over.

The Spiritual Phase of the Cadet's Life.—The spiritual phase of education is the most difficult, but the most important. Whenever this element is an incident of minor consideration the school fails in its most essential function. In Culver we aim at faith rather than dogma, at inspiration rather than a code, at a spiritual atmosphere rather than positive instruction. It must be approached with urgency and reverence. Mere morality from the spiritual impulse misses the mark. It lacks vigor and life. The teacher must devise his own methods. He must select his own avenues of approach. Morality has been defined as man's relation to man and religion as man's relation to the universe. In the formative period this question of relationship must have a place—a large place.

We approach this through the personality of the

teacher, through an organized Young Men's Christian Association and by bringing the students in personal contact with the spiritual leaders of the nation.

The following is the schedule in force at Culver which, with some modifications, is essentially that of other schools of the same type:

Nature of Duty	Mon. P. M. to Sat. A. M.	Mon. A. M. Sat. P. M.	Sunday
Reveille, 1st call	6:00 A. M.	6:00 A. M.	7:00 A. M.
Reveille, 2nd call	6:10	6:10	7:10
Police Inspection	6:30	6:30	7:30
Sick call	6:40	6:40	7:40
Breakfast, 1st call	6:50	6:50	7:50
Breakfast, 2nd call	7.00	7:00	8:00
Chapel, 1st call	7:40		11:00
Chapel, 2nd call	7:45		11:10
Study and Recitation	8:00 to 12:30		
General Inspection, 1st call		8:50	
General Inspection, 2nd call		9:30	
		Recreation	
Dinner, 1st call	12:30 P. M.	12:30 P. M.	12:50 P. M.
Dinner, 2nd call	12:40	12:40	1:00
Guard Mounting, 1st call	1:15	1:15	12:15
Guard Mounting, 2nd call	1:25	1:25	12:25
Call to Quarters	1:40		
Study and Recitation	1:40 to 3:00		
Drill, 1st call	3:00		
Drill, 2nd call	3:10	Recreation	
Recall from Drill	3:55		Recreation
Parade, 1st call	3:55		
Parade, 2nd call	4:05		
Recreation	4:30 to 5:50		
Supper, 1st call	5:50	5:50	5:50
Supper, 2nd call	6:00	6:00	6:00
Call to Quarters	7:00 to 9:00	7:00	7:00
Study	7:00 to 9:00		
Tattoo	9:00	9:00	9:00
Taps	9:30	9:30	9:30

CHAPTER III

THE FACULTY

THE head of a strictly military institution in conformity with the West Point custom is ordinarily designated as the superintendent. Usually he is a man who has had military training. Unless such is the case the institution is not likely to achieve the highest degree of success in the application of the military system. The superintendent does not, as a rule, take active part in the military instruction of cadets, but necessarily determines to what extent the school shall be conducted in harmony with military traditions.

The superintendent naturally has the immediate government of the institution and all officers, instructors, cadets and employees are under his command. All applications for unusual privileges and cases of severe discipline are referred to him for his judgment and approval.

The Academic Staff.—The faculty is ordinarily divided into an academic and a military staff. In the smaller schools the two overlap but in some of the larger schools they are quite distinct. In general the members of both staffs are given military rank and their members appear in uniform while on duty. The rank is usually local; however, in some institutions commissions are conferred by the state either on the entire faculty or on members of the military staff alone.

The head of the academic staff has immediate supervision of the classification of cadets, the arrangement of curriculum and the methods of instruction. He is variously designated as the president of the academic board, the head master, director of studies, etc.

He is responsible to the superintendent for the proper conduct of the academic work of the school. The members of the academic staff at Culver are designated as captain and instructor, first lieutenant and associate instructor, second lieutenant and assistant instructor. Each academic department has its own head who is a full instructor and also receives extra compensation. He in turn is responsible to the head of the academic staff for the work of his department.

The Military Staff.—The military staff as its name implies is directly responsible for the military training and instruction of cadets. At its head is the commandant of cadets. This position requires a man of unusual judgment and experience. He must combine with thorough military training more than ordinary ability to deal with boys. Many a school has failed as a military institution because this post was inadequately filled. The commandant of cadets, as his name implies, is in immediate command of the battalion of cadets; he is also the chief instructor in military tactics and is responsible for discipline. In some institutions the post of commandant of cadets is filled by the officer of the army detailed to the institution by the War Department as professor of military science. In others it has seemed best to appoint as commandant of cadets, one who is permanently attached to the

institution and who may study its needs and requirements over a long period of years. In such cases the professor of military science acts in an advisory capacity to the superintendent, but does not take immediate charge of discipline. The professor of military science lectures to the cadets and in general directs the system of military instruction in harmony with the requirements of the War Department.

At Culver the military staff, in addition to the two officers mentioned, consists of an instructor of cavalry, an instructor of military engineering, instructor of artillery, an instructor of target practise and six instructors of infantry. Each of these officers is in command of a company of the corps of cadets. At West Point the barracks are under immediate control of cadet officers. In military schools where younger boys are in attendance it has been considered desirable to have officers of the faculty quartered in barracks, cadet officers acting as their assistants in maintaining discipline.

Oversight of Cadets.—A complete system of inspection keeps the cadet very closely under the supervision of his instructors. These inspections are designed to insure not only close conformity to the regulations in the matters of conduct, but also to see that study hours are carefully observed and that the quarters are kept in neat and soldierly condition. These inspections are made by officers quartered in barracks, by the officer of the military staff who is especially "in charge" of discipline for the day, by the cadet officer of the day and by cadet officers who are assistant inspectors of divisions of barracks. Some of these

inspections are made during study hours and some during recreation; one inspection is always made between the hour of retiring and the hour of rising.

There is no spying on the cadet, no sneaking around to catch him unawares. It is understood that his officers are concerned, not so much in catching him in breaches of regulations as in discouraging him from breaking them. I do not mean to say that a system of supervision can be devised that will eliminate every opportunity for the cadets to do wrong. It would be unwise even to attempt it. For the boy to be eternally under the eye of the instructor would not only be oppressive, it would be unproductive of the best results. There is a happy medium between superficial oversight which allows serious abuses to creep in and nagging, distrustful surveillance that breeds antagonism. There is some tendency for the cadet to react when first released from strict discipline of the military academy, but if the school has imparted ideals as well as discipline it is my experience that the reaction at worst will be brief and not very serious.

Personal Relations Between Officers and Cadets.—The intercourse between officers and cadets on duty is always formal. Cadets in meeting officers extend the military salute, which the officers punctiliously return. The cadet is taught to understand that the salute is not in any sense an expression of servility, but an exchange of courtesy between gentlemen in accordance with the military custom, the junior saluting first. For this reason cadets are cautioned that perfunctory salutes are bad form and that a salute to be really courteous must be rendered with spirit and precision.

If an officer approaches cadets who are seated, they stand at attention. This rule does not apply in the reading room, recreation rooms or on the athletic field unless the cadet is spoken to by the officer. There is none of that lolling against the teacher's desk and greeting him with "Say! I would like to know, etc." A cadet reporting to an officer stands squarely on his feet and saluting, says: "Sir, Cadet ——— reports his presence." On receiving the officer's acknowledgment of his report the cadet states his business in a direct and businesslike but respectful manner. If the officer wishes to talk with the cadet in a friendly and informal manner, he may ask him to be seated, but at the conclusion of the chat, no matter how informal, the cadet comes to attention, salutes and takes his departure in military fashion. The improvement that this strict observance of military courtesy makes in the bearing and attitude of the average boy is very striking.

Despite this formal intercourse between officer and cadet there is real respect and understanding between the two. Off duty there is friendliness without the "slap-on-the-back intimacy" so destructive of real influence.

Capable teachers, men who have a real genius for handling boys, are hard to secure. The problem is even more difficult in the military school. The careful observance of the rules of military courtesy, the salutes, the standing at attention, the use of the "sir," inculcate respect for authority and good manners but they may interpose a barrier to reaching the real boy unless the teacher or officer is possessed of just the right qualities of tact, discrimination and good judgment.

CHAPTER IV

STUDIES AND METHOD OF INSTRUCTION

THE military school differs very little, if any, from the civilian preparatory school in its courses of study. Its methods of instruction, however, are more or less influenced by the military traditions of the school and its daily schedule is necessarily made more full by the addition of military drill. Since the drill supplements the curriculum of the civilian school it is fair to ask whether it trenches on the boy's time for study.

The time that is given to actual drill is, in part, time that goes to waste in a less carefully organized schedule and in part it is time that the boy in the civilian school would have to himself. This does not mean that the cadet is overworked. Not including meals he has from an hour and a half to two hours of recreation daily. He also has Saturday afternoon, Sunday afternoon, a part of Monday forenoon and Saturday and Sunday evenings. If necessary he may readily give even a portion of this time to extra study since he gets a fair amount of daily exercise from the required drills. Ordinarily, however, if he makes good use of his time he will find sufficient opportunity to prepare his lessons in the regularly allotted study hours. At Culver a cadet has per day an average of

four periods of recitation of forty-five minutes each with two hours and a half for study during the day and two hours and fifteen minutes in the evening. This will be found to differ very little, if any, from the average allotment of time for study and recreation in the civilian school.

At Culver a special "help" period is included in the day's schedule. During this period instructors are required to be on duty in their class rooms and to give assistance to cadets who call on them. This does not preclude the giving of assistance at other times, but it furnishes a definite period for that purpose when no other duties conflict. Cadets may be instructed to report during this period or they may go of their own volition.

I do not know of this system being employed elsewhere. It is not given therefore as a typical arrangement but simply as a scheme that has worked out very satisfactorily in practise. It is in harmony with the military idea of having a definite time for every important thing and furnishes assistance more comprehensively and effectively than is possible under a schedule with no designated time for this purpose.

Danger of Military Features Overshadowing the Academic.—There is a danger that the military features of the school may overshadow its academic work, but such need not be the case. No institution in the country has been able to maintain more rigid standards of academic efficiency than West Point, yet the time and attention given to purely military parts of the curriculum are necessarily much greater than in private military schools. West Point, however, puts a high

premium on academic efficiency. The relative rating of cadets in the academy, their rank at graduation, the arm of the service to which assigned, in fact the particular cast of their life's work is determined by their class standing.

It is necessary for private military schools likewise to place a high premium on scholarship and to guard against class-room duties becoming eclipsed by those military features which make a more ready appeal to the cadets' interest. Satisfactory academic work as a requirement for promotion to military rank, the appointment as class marcher of the cadet who stands highest in his section, the awarding of special insignia to men who win academic honors afford tangible evidence to the cadet that the authorities wish to encourage good class-room work. But these are not sufficient in themselves. If a cadet is permitted to "get by" with half-prepared recitations and slipshod work in the class room while a high degree of accuracy and thoroughness is required of him on the drill field, he will very naturally conclude that his studies are considered of less importance than drill.

It becomes doubly important, therefore, that any failure of the cadet in his academic work should receive careful and effective attention.

Supervision of Class-Room Work.—The supervision of class-room work and the investigation of the causes of any failure of cadets to keep up to the required standard are duties of the head of the academic department. To him must be reported each day cadets who fail to keep their work up to the standard of which they are capable or who neglect to bring as-

signed work to the class. These cadets may in his discretion be required to report to study hall during the recreation period, or may be required to prepare their lessons during study hours in the study hall instead of in their rooms. Study hall is maintained both in the evening and during the day. In fact, two study halls are maintained—one for cadets who really need assistance, and one for cadets who need only to be made to study.

In the latter class will fall those boys of more than usual ability who are satisfied with mediocre work, and who, unless they receive as definite attention as the boys who need actual assistance, will fail to get the discipline that comes from hard work and will probably go out from the school less efficient workers and thinkers than some of their slower comrades. It is not always an easy matter, as teachers know, to determine when a boy is working up to the limit of his ability or to distinguish between the boys who require assistance and those who merely need prodding.

During the past few years at Culver considerable study has been given to the matter of determining a coefficient of efficiency for each cadet; something that will supplement the judgment of the teacher in determining whether or not he is working up to the limit of his ability and that will also give a more scientific and satisfactory basis for his classification.

Mental Tests.—In this connection a new position has been created in the faculty, that of consulting psychologist. In addition to conferring with teachers in regard to class-room methods, of grading, and with individual cadets in regard to their methods of study

and other particular difficulties, he has given much attention to correlating a system of mental tests from which may be gained a fairly accurate idea of the ability of each cadet and his probable aptitude for certain lines of effort.

These tests, like the medical and physical examinations, are given to all cadets on entering the academy. To avoid a feeling of restraint and embarrassment they are first given to groups and later those cases that seem to warrant special study are given more extended individual tests. The uniform conditions under which all members of a military school live and study render it possible to make comparisons and deductions from psychological tests with a much greater degree of reliability than would be possible in other schools. It is for that reason that Culver was able to attract from a large university one of the most active investigators in the field of mental tests.

The West Point Plan of Small Sections.—Many military schools have adopted the West Point plan of dividing the classes in each subject into small sections. The number of cadets in each section rarely exceeds ten or twelve and in those sections which contain the more backward students there are frequently not more than five or six. This, of course, necessitates a large teaching force, but it results in the students covering the subject with greater thoroughness, avoids crowding those who are slower or holding back the more apt, and makes it possible to require daily recitations from each cadet and to give the individual a greater amount of personal attention.

Under such a system there is naturally more op-

portunity of correcting the wasteful and unscientific methods of study so characteristic of most preparatory-school boys. It is needless to say that the boy who has really learned to work goes to college with a much more valuable asset than a list of credits or a mind crammed for an entrance examination.

Special Provisions for Boys Who Do Not Go to College.—There are many boys who will benefit by a secondary-school education who would not find it worth while to go to college. These boys as a rule require a degree of guidance and help that can not be afforded in the larger classes of the high school. It is doubtful also whether our best private schools make adequate provision for this type of boy. The courses in such schools as a rule are shaped almost entirely with a view to preparing boys for college.

Boys of the type referred to, however, are worthy of the best efforts of the private school. The military system frequently discloses in this type executive ability and other qualities which will enable the boy to attain a high degree of success in business or commercial pursuits. It is for this reason perhaps that schools like Culver have considered it especially worth while to give these boys an unusual degree of help and guidance and in some cases to make special provision for them in their courses of study.

At Culver a business course is offered which has been prepared with as much care and attention as the courses designed for boys who are preparing for college. This course is not analogous to that of the business colleges. It includes such electives as stenography, bookkeeping and commercial law, but its aim is

to give the boy fundamental principles rather than commercial practise, and in addition to afford him as much general information and cultural training as possible.

In affording the special help and guidance that will enable boys of very moderate ability and boys who lack a taste for books to graduate from the school, some risk is run of encouraging these boys to waste time in attempting a college course from which they will be unable to derive any adequate benefit.

To regulate this in a measure Culver will not recommend for admission to college without examination boys who fail to make grades of eighty or above in all of the subjects of the last two years. From time to time boys who are below this standard succeed in gaining admission to college and fail to do credit to the school. This consideration is more than offset, however, by the training for useful citizenship that has been given many other boys who without the incentive of a diploma and without special help might have been denied the opportunities afforded them by a secondary-school course.

CHAPTER V

THE SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT BY CADETS

THE officers of the school are naturally expected to report such violations of rules as they may see. A distinct feature of the system, however, is the obligation of cadets when on duty to report fellow-cadets who violate the rules. The cadet off duty will no more tell tales on his fellows than the boy in other schools. When the relationship is purely that of comrade to comrade it is not expected of him, but on duty it is different. In all military schools the cadet officers, the marcher of a class, the sentinel on duty, are expected to report breaches of discipline on the part of their fellows. Sometimes this is not conscientiously done, and where such is the case, the effect is evil both on the boy who is pretending to do a duty which he fails to perform and on the boy under him who gets such a bad object lesson in fidelity to a trust.

Under an honor system cadets may be made to understand the difference between being on duty and off duty, and a roommate or a chum may be reported without giving offense if the report is just. It is understood that the action is impersonal and a matter of duty.

It is not easy to bring this about; it requires careful molding of the traditions of the school and keeping

constantly before the cadet officers the highest ideals of duty. It can be accomplished, however, and it can be carried to a point where cadet officers feel a responsibility even off duty for anything which affects the honor and good name of the school. When this point is reached something very vital has been gained, for, however vigilant the officers or teachers of the school may be, they can not know everything that goes on below the surface of outward conformity. But if they can inspire the cadets themselves to be the guardians of the best interests of the corps in these vital matters, then indeed may they say to the parent, "This school is a safe place for your boy."

Selection of Cadet Officers.—The system of appointment of cadet officers and the administration of discipline through them affords one of the finest features of the military school. Service as a cadet officer furnishes a valuable opportunity for the rounding out of character and for the acquirement of executive experience. The minute a boy is given discipline to enforce he sees the other side of the shield; he acquires balance and a sense of proportion; the view-point of the governor as well as the governed. I have seen preparatory-school boys gain from their experience as lieutenants and captains a poise and bearing that would be more than marked even among mature college men.

In the best schools the greatest care is exercised in the selection of these cadet officers. Those on whom the most responsibility rests are the commissioned officers: the captains and lieutenants, chosen from the most mature boys of the senior class. No one who

has served less than two, preferably three years, is selected.

There should be abundant opportunity before such responsibility is placed in him, not only for the boy to become thoroughly imbued with the best traditions of the school, but for those who appoint him to become familiar with his every trait and tendency.

That the boy should be showy in appearance; even that he have force and ability to command, are not sufficient. Great care must be exercised to guard against the danger of jingoism and the spirit that manifests itself in the swagger of the swashbuckler. That the candidate for promotion is trustworthy, that he is able to resist the lure of popularity in the strict performance of his duty, that he is conscientious, that he is instinctively fair and honorable, these are the prime requisites.

These things can not be determined in a few hours' thought in making up a list at the end of a year. One of the most important things that has been worked out at Culver is a system of efficiency records which keeps throughout the year the qualifications of the boy constantly in the minds of those who are finally to judge of his fitness for promotion. By this plan the estimate of character and merit on which appointments are made at the end of the term are as nearly correct as it is humanly possible to make them. And by this plan the danger of putting into positions of trust and responsibility boys who will use their influence harmfully is reduced to the minimum.

Training of Cadet Officers.—The cadet officers having been wisely chosen, it becomes necessary to

train them with the greatest care. There must be the closest cooperation between cadet officers and officers of the school, but there must be the nicest distinction between cooperation and carrying too much of the boy's responsibility for him. Herein is where a serious mistake is sometimes made; the boy's office must mean more to him than the opportunity to wear chevrons and to give mechanical commands at drill.

While each company has attached to it an officer of the school, he is there in an advisory capacity; the actual handling of the company is done by the cadet captain.

It is impressed upon him that it is not sufficient for him merely to instruct the members of his company in marching and going through the manual of arms and to prevent trifling and talking and require obedience. He must take a keen interest in the welfare of every boy in his company. His relationship must be such that the boy will be willing to come to him for advice in intimate matters and talk to him about things that, because they perhaps involve his comrades, he would hesitate to speak about to an officer of the school.

The Cadet Officer's Responsibility.—The captain must be taught also that he has a responsibility for the other company officers under him. If a newly appointed corporal in the first enthusiasm of his new honors is overzealous and antagonizes and ruffles the cadets in the company by noisy and unnecessary corrections, he has to be straightened out. If some one has been unfair; has really "got it in for some cadet" against whom he has a grudge, a thing that does not

often happen with careful selection, here again the cadet captain must take a hand and see that the offending one is removed from the position he abuses. He must encourage and stimulate those who are not doing well, meet and talk to them from the vantage point of being a fellow cadet. He must "weed" out the mere "knocks" and take the just grievances of his men to higher authority when he can not himself adjust them.

It is amazing how successfully this sort of thing is done by boys of seventeen and eighteen. Unless this phase of the cadet officer's duty is strongly emphasized the system is of little value either to the school or to the boy who has won for himself by diligence and fidelity the award of an officer's chevrons.

CHAPTER VI

DISCIPLINE

THOSE who regard discipline in a narrow and restricted sense as something that applies only to measures that must be taken with boys of an unruly type, are apt to conclude that because the military school stresses discipline it specializes in those boys whom their parents or civilian schools can not control. This is a mistake. Military schools of the best type are as careful in the character of the students admitted as are the best civilian schools, and perhaps have the advantage of the civilian school in possessing a system which reveals with greater certainty and with less loss of time any boy of undesirable influence who may have slipped through despite the safeguards to admission.

The Need for Discipline.—Quite apart from the boy of bad character, however, is the average American boy, who is notably lacking in respect for authority; and there are also the sons of the wealthy and well-to-do, for whom life has been too easy; and the only boy, of whom there are many and around whom the home circle has revolved until he has become selfish and self-centered. There is to be considered also the fact that a time comes in the life of every normal boy when he chafes under home discipline and when

others can deal with him more effectively than his parents.

Discipline should not be a side issue or a by-product of the school. There is too much emphasis laid on mere book learning; too little on the building of character. "The next twenty pages in history; the next ten problems in algebra" make definite tasks that take care of themselves. The discipline of the boy's moral nature, the strengthening of his moral fiber should receive positive definite attention. Any system should be welcomed that tends definitely to bring out the best that is in a boy, that develops his sense of honor and of duty and that teaches him to obey, that he later may learn to command.

Effectiveness of the Military System.—The military system accomplishes these things effectively because it appeals to the boy. It fails to appeal only when it is a hollow sham to tickle the fancy or lure pupils, as it unfortunately is in some schools. But if it is real it exercises over him a subtle and far-reaching influence; it makes him submit himself to a system of plain and wholesome living and to restrictions under which he would probably rebel in any other type of school. There are over-indulgent parents and spoiled children in every generation, but there are also in this generation many thoughtful and earnest parents who find themselves, in the face of modern conditions, powerless to train and safeguard their children as they would during that period of greatest danger, from fourteen to twenty. The boy needs oversight at that time of the most careful and tactful nature. He needs a normal wholesome atmosphere and regular

hours and simple diet and abundant exercise. He needs to be thrown on his own resources just far enough, but not too far. His sense of humor must be appealed to, but undeveloped character must not be placed under too great a strain. He must learn by suffering the penalty of his mistakes not to make them a second time; but the penalties, if they are not to antagonize and lose their effect, must be impersonal and meted out with exact justice. Rewards must also play their part. Such conditions are almost ideally provided by an intelligently applied military system.

To Command Respect the Discipline Must Be Real.—Some schools have been timid about applying the military system. They have been fearful of scaring boys if they made it too hard. The result as a rule is a discipline that is poverty-stricken in results. Boys are not afraid of a few hardships if they are sure that they are getting the real thing. They may do a little grumbling now and then like the rest of us, but they will enter into the spirit of a thing that they respect. They have a fine contempt for the imitation. They do not like to feel that they are simply "tin" soldiers. I have seen boys who had been brought up in ease and luxury, grooming horses on the picket line, peeling potatoes on kitchen police on an overnight march, or standing guard on a cold rainy night and doing it cheerfully with never a thought of not playing the game. And I have seen many a youngster around whom the home circle had revolved from the day of his birth, obeying without question and with the most soldierly spirit the orders of cadet officers and sentinels of his own age and younger. I have seen the amaze-

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ment and sometimes the amusement of parents because their boys on the very day of entrance have so caught the spirit of the thing that apparently their whole attitude toward obedience and promptness has undergone a transformation.

Where the traditions are right and the true military spirit prevails the boy senses it immediately.

Illustrating the Effect on the Boy.—A specialist who visited a certain school said to a boy who had been under his care, "You hear better than you used to." "You have to hear here, sir," was the immediate response. This conveys a very good idea of the boy's attitude toward military discipline as does the remark that a bright youngster made to his mother on his return home for his first vacation: "Mother," he said, "why haven't you all these years told me 'do it' instead of 'won't you do it'? It would have saved me hours." Strangely enough, however, the mother's "do it" would probably not have been so effective as the "do it" of the smallest corporal with the badge of military authority on his sleeve and the atmosphere of military traditions behind him.

During an experience of seventeen years with some six thousand boys, I can recall but few cases of direct disobedience to orders. Of course, under military rules direct disobedience means expulsion or some heavy penalty, and talking back is a serious offense; but it takes something more potent than the mere fear of a penalty always to keep in check the quick temper and to secure unquestioning obedience and respect for authority from the very start, especially when so frequently these things are not required at home.

Respect for Authority.—If the boy merely obeyed under the influence of military suggestion and continued to argue matters at home, little would be gained. As a matter of fact, however, his life month after month in an atmosphere of discipline inculcates a real and permanent respect for authority. I have the testimony of many parents to that effect.

I have no particular reference to the so-called unruly boy. This lack of respect for authority is quite a common trait in the American youth and any system that corrects it effectively renders a distinct service to the boy, his parents and the state.

Doctor Austin B. Hayden, a Chicago nose and throat specialist, and member of the faculty of Rush Medical College, told me that the effect of military discipline had manifested itself in a very interesting way in connection with his practise at Culver. The institution had made especial arrangements with him to operate on those of its cadets who from time to time were found to be handicapped by enlarged tonsils, adenoids and similar ailments. In every one of these cases, he said, had he been able to operate perfectly with the use of merely local anesthetics. He was not only able to operate much more speedily, but also more effectively. The boy did exactly what he was told the instant he was told and submitted unflinchingly to the operation. In no other type of school, he said, could he have done this in every case. The difference to him was most marked.

A Fine Test of Discipline.—One of the most satisfying tests of military discipline that has come under my personal observation occurred during the flood of

1913. The city of Logansport, Indiana, is located at the junction of the Eel and Wabash Rivers. For a time it was in as desperate a plight as any city in the flooded district. Some hundred cadets went to the rescue, using man-of-war cutters that had been loaned them by the national government for the purposes of naval instruction. The call for help came about midnight. The cutters, which are twenty-eight feet long, eight feet in beam and weigh three thousand pounds, were stored for the winter in boat houses. Working by the light of lanterns the cadets loaded these boats on flat cars, finishing the arduous task about three A. M.

Rations for a day were issued, and the cadets, who were to man the boats, clambered into the caboose and the train pulled out into the darkness, feeling its way over weakened bridges and culverts. It finally reached Logansport just as day was breaking.

The cadets skidded their boats off the cars and slid them down the street-car track for a couple of blocks until they floated. Then they manned their oars and pulled toward the sections in greatest distress, near the banks of the river.

The current grew more swift and finally in a great rushing swirl at a street crossing the first boat was dashed against a telegraph pole, smashing two of its heavy fourteen-foot oars. Fortunately, extra oars had been supplied.

From then on ensued a hard all-day battle with swift currents and foaming eddies, dangerously complicated with wires and tree-tops. Snatching a mouthful of coffee occasionally, as they came to shore, the cadets worked unceasingly.

During the afternoon they kept steadily on, although half blinded by a driving snowstorm and with hands so cold that they could with difficulty retain their grasp of the oars. Women and children were tenderly helped down from roofs and windows; the sick, the hungry and the cold, the aged and infirm were put into the boats and taken to places of safety without a slip or a mishap.

By the second evening fourteen hundred people had been taken from the inundated district by these boys in their four cutters. And then, securing their boats because the waters had receded too far to make it possible to get them back to the railroad, they marched by a long detour back to the depot.

By all the laws of nature they should have been exhausted, but they went their way with a swinging step, singing, and occasionally giving a school yell.

I do not mean to say that boys of a civilian school would not have been just as anxious to lend the aid that these cadets did, but what I do mean to say is that they could not have done it.

Even if they had had the physical endurance they would have lacked the organization, the perfect coordination. Obedience had to be automatic; there were times when instant response to commands, absolute coolness and absence of confusion meant perhaps the lives of a boat load of people.

It was not the fact that these boys did this duty, but that they did it so effectively—without slip or accident and merely as a matter of course—that I consider such a fine demonstration of the effects of military discipline.

The people of Logansport have erected in commemoration of this service a fine gate at the entrance of the school. It seems most fitting that the cadets of the institution as they enter and as they leave should have this reminder of the value of discipline and efficiency and of the ideals of service to their fellowmen.

Once after this incident I was talking to a boy who wanted to give up in the face of some small discouragement. I had talked to him quite a while without effect. Finally I said to him: "Do you suppose when we took those cadets to Logansport that we would have dared to risk including a man who had ever shown the kind of spirit you are showing now, or a fellow we knew would be willing to quit under any circumstances?"

The effect of that concrete allusion was immediate. "I will stick it out, sir," he said, and he did.

Hazing.—On account of its character as a government institution a great deal of publicity was given at one time to the alleged mistreatment of new cadets at West Point, and in the minds of some people an association grew up between military schools and hazing. Hazing is no more a necessity in a military school than in a non-military school. That has been demonstrated by its practical elimination from the government schools. As a matter of fact, I have heard of more brutal forms of hazing in some of the colleges than I have ever known to be practised in military schools.

Unquestionably the greenness of the newcomer is emphasized at first by his utter unfamiliarity with military customs and requirements, and undoubtedly

this mental awkwardness furnishes a strong temptation to the upper classmen to have fun at the new man's expense.

The opportunity should be given for this first awkwardness to wear off before the older cadets appear on the scene.

After all, however, hazing must be controlled largely by the sentiment of the cadets themselves. Doubtless in some of its milder forms it has proved beneficial. I remember a case that once came to my notice of a new boy who walked over from the hotel permitting his mother to carry his suit-case. I learned afterward that some of the upper classmen had occupied this young man's leisure time for several days afterward in making him carry his suit-case up and down the stairs of his barracks.

Undoubtedly they taught him a lesson in gallantry that could not have been so effectively imparted through more official channels. But boys as a rule do not show much discretion in these things and any latitude is apt to be abused. Real *esprit de corps* is not cultivated by hazing and much more harm than good results from its practise, for the bully takes refuge under such a system and is protected by it.

The discipline of the conceited and stubborn is the excuse usually advanced for the practise of hazing, but the legitimate use of military discipline and the traditions of the school are effective with the majority of such boys, and it is better to drop from the school those exceptional cases in which military discipline is not effective than to permit hazing in any form.

There is really less excuse for hazing in a military

school than in any other. If the discipline of the school can not command the new cadets' respect without being reinforced by hazing, the discipline is not of the best sort.

I have found that even invariable dismissal of offenders will not control hazing, but that it is necessary in addition to cultivate a sentiment against it among the cadets themselves. Even then interference with new cadets will occur, but it will be sporadic at least and not a practise. For ten years I have not known a case that was in the slightest degree serious, although it has been necessary from time to time to dismiss cadets for this offense.

I believe such in general is the experience of the best military schools, and that for the most part they are as free from hazing as any institution can be in which live red-blooded boys are gathered together. The rules of the school generally prescribe not only that no tricks or pranks shall be played on the new cadet, but also that no service shall be required or accepted of him.

Combinations Most Serious Menace to Discipline.—Every school at one time or another in its history has had to deal with the concerted action of students to disobey a regulation or to show disapproval of some official action. The discipline of the school is forever influenced by the stand it takes in such crises. Especially is this the case in a military school. If the boys feel that they can awe the authorities by mere show of numbers and that the numerical strength of those committing an offense can tie the hands of the school

in inflicting a suitable penalty, there will be endless trouble and discipline will become to a large extent a farce. Such issues of course should be prevented by all possible means and every opportunity should be given for the presentation of just grievances; but if such crises come there is but one way to deal with them. The school must rule, not the student.

The only serious difficulty of this kind at Culver occurred very early in my experience as commandant of cadets. Two cadets had been dismissed for going beyond bounds after night. One was a very popular fellow. They were to leave on an evening train. That evening in the half-hour recreation period immediately after supper one hundred and four cadets, in order to show their disapproval, left the grounds and went to the depot to see the dismissed cadets take their departure. At call to quarters their absence was reported. A far-off sound of yelling in the direction of the depot gave a clue to their whereabouts. A hurried ride brought me to the young mutineers. At first there was a tendency under cover of the darkness to disregard the command to come to attention and "fall in," and it was necessary by riding among them to disperse groups that were apparently trying to get together and decide what next move would have the backing of the crowd. When men were called by name, however, their training promptly asserted itself and discipline finally prevailed. The one hundred and four cadets were formed and marched back to barracks in fairly good order. There were some very fine boys in that escapade, and yet there were some very vital

principles involved. Only one thing seemed possible to me under the circumstances: the dismissal of the offenders.

Under military discipline a combination to show disapproval of the official action of the authorities is a most serious offense, and, under the rules, punishable by dismissal; also, under the rules of the school, absence from the grounds after night was punishable by dismissal. These hundred and four cadets had been guilty of both offenses, and the two cadets who had been dismissed had been guilty of but one offense. If these hundred and four were not dismissed the precedent of safety in numbers for almost any breach of discipline seemed inevitable.

Culver was a young school then: one hundred and four was just half of its enrolment. It seemed ruin either to dismiss or not to dismiss. On the return to barracks before breaking ranks the cadets were told of the decision to recommend their dismissal to the superintendent. They were then ordered to quarters under arrest. They went quietly, stunned by the sudden realization of the seriousness of the escapade. The superintendent forwarded the recommendation of dismissal to the trustees, and their reply was laconic and to the point: "There is nothing else to do. If the boys are to run the school we had best discontinue it at once. It would be better to use our buildings for barns and fill them with hay than to try to run a school that way." And so the hundred and four were sent home. Some of the parents sadly agreed with the school that it was the only thing to do, some said nothing and some were very indignant.

Trying days followed. The newspapers published sensational accounts of the affair. The school was condemned for high-handed and unsympathetic treatment of a mere boyish prank. An exception was a satirical but not unsympathetic little editorial that appeared in the old *Chicago Record:* "In these days," it said, "when the pranks of students range from petty larceny to manslaughter, it seems incredible that a small Indiana institution should have the temerity to expel one hundred and four students for merely defying the authorities and breaking the regulations of the school. We refuse to believe it until we have more convincing evidence. . . ."

An indignation meeting of parents was held in Chicago and lawsuits were threatened. The school, however, stood its ground. Later on many of the cadets having good records whom it was certain had no part in instigating the trouble, and especially cadets in their first year, were reinstated, but the effect of the school's action was not vitiated thereby, and the stand it took still lives in the traditions of the school and is referred to by cadets as the "big fire."

CHAPTER VII

REWARDS AND PENALTIES

THE awards afforded by the military school are effective because they appeal to every boy's ambition and because many of them are such as every boy may win. The penalties owe their effectiveness to the fact that they are peculiarly impersonal.

Foremost of incentives to boys in the military schools are the opportunities for promotion. To become even a corporal stirs a boy's pride and ambition as does no other experience in school life. I do not except even the winning of his school's athletic emblem. The one means an achievement in a single phase of the school's activities; the other takes into consideration practically every attribute of the boy. The one is an emblem of service rendered in a single field; the other is an emblem of service to be rendered in connection with every phase of the whole school life. The chevron carries with it not honor alone, but a great deal of responsibility.

Other Rewards for Good Discipline.—The awarding of a collar device which may be worn by any cadet who has achieved certain standards of efficiency works amazingly well. It is surprising how boys will strive for a little thing of that sort.

It has been utilized at Culver with gratifying results

in the matter of carriage. For a long time it was noted that many cadets, when out of ranks and not under official supervision, relapsed into careless ways of standing, sitting and walking, and that if this were overcome to a large degree in the first year, there was a tendency to backslide in the second year, when the novelty had worn off. Especially was this tendency noticeable among a certain class of old cadets, who felt that they had no chance of promotion.

The rule was made that a cadet must acquire and maintain a good set-up at all times before he could be permitted to wear the school insignia on the collar of his uniform. That rule has resulted in one of the most uniformly well set-up corps of cadets I have ever seen.

To offset the demerits assigned for breaches of discipline there is a system of merits; these merits being assigned for "best rooms" at Sunday morning inspection, "best room" at daily inspections for the week, "neatest personal appearance" in his company, "no lates" for a week. It is surprising how effective these demerits are in helping the system of discipline to "work both ways."

If rewards and incentives and interest would accomplish results in every instance it would be highly desirable, but such unfortunately is never the case. In the military school, as in the non-military school, there are always those who have to learn from bitter experience: there are some who have to be given the extreme penalty of dismissal, and some who have to be dropped at vacations and between sessions.

Assignment of Demerits and Penalties.—There

are many things for which the cadet may receive demerits that are not found in the regulations of the civilian school. A fleck of dust on his clothes at a meal formation, heels of his shoes not shined, a half second's tardiness in getting into his section at a class period, towel out of place in his room, failure to sit erect, etc., are but a few of the things to which the cadet is required to give attention.

Charges of a serious nature or those reflecting on the character of a cadet are made direct to the commandant of cadets, but delinquencies of a less serious character are entered on what is known as the guard sheet and are published daily, so that each cadet reported may have the opportunity of "answering" his report. No demerits are assigned even for a minor offense until the cadet is given a hearing. He is required to answer his reports whether they are correct or not.

Each cadet answers his reports to the commandant of cadets or to the tactical officer in charge of his company. All reports of a serious character are referred to the superintendent. The cadet states his excuse if he has one, or else states that the report is correct. If the excuse seems good the report is removed. The following copy of a daily guard sheet will give an idea of the many details of personal conduct for which the cadet is held strictly accountable:

A SPECIMEN DISCIPLINE SHEET

Guard Sheet, December 1, 191—

CADET REPORTED	REPORT	REPORTER
Adams	Talking in class	James
Abbott	Chair out of place second C. P.	Capt. Hall
Baker, C.	Late reveille	Baker, O. D.
Camp	Dust on wardrobe shelf	Capt. Hall
Dean	Slouching fifth class period	Swope
Gahns	Putting water in fellow cadet's bed	Capt. Hall
Hansen	Sleeping during study hours	Capt. Hall
Huston	Allowing men to trifle while marching them to guard mount	Capt. Rife, O. C.
Ilmes	Laughing at attention drill	Sloan
Johnson	Not writing weekly home letter	Abbott
Kaylor	Visiting without permission during study hours	Rider
Lambe	Inattention at drill	Atkins
Lewis	No cuffs chapel formation	Kurty
Meyer	Clothing not properly arranged in wardrobe	Brown
Nester	Not complying promptly with sentinel's orders	Capt. Rife, O. C.
Simms	Late class period	Baker, O. D.
Steeger	Neglect as sentinel in allowing cadets to call from window	Capt. Smith
Taylor, E.	Dust in barrel of rifle	Capt. Bruce
Taylor, J.	Late drill	Baker O. D.
Thompson	Reading magazine during study hours	Capt. Byron
Vestal	Bed carelessly made	Guy
Ward	Cap out of place at police inspection	Madden
Williams	Absent chapel	Baker, O. D.
	Heels of shoes not shined	Hunt
Wood	Elbows on table mess	Lyle
Wright	Table in disorder	Capt. Hall
	Spots on blouse	Thorp

The Cadet's Word Is Never Questioned.—My own experience has been limited to schools in which the honor system is in effect, and it seems to me that any other spirit is incompatible with the application of military training and ideals. The standard of the cadet and the gentleman is the accepted one. The officer never questions the cadet's word. As a result there is seldom an attempt to deceive him, and very little in the way of specious or trivial excuses. If there is a conflict between the statement of the reporting officer and the cadet, the cadet is required to answer his report in writing, and the reporting officer to make his endorsement also in writing, in order that both may be stated with careful exactness. The great care that is exercised to insure justice in the administration of discipline, the emphasis that is placed on truthfulness and the sense of personal responsibility that is developed in the cadet are the valuable features of the military system in securing the boy's cooperation in governing himself, which, after all, is the essential thing.

Extra Duty.—The demerits the cadet receives are summed up once each week. If he has more than a given number he is required to walk an hour during his recreation for each demerit in excess of the stated limit. A happy-go-lucky youngster from Denver told me that he figured that he walked home and back in the course of his first year. He got more out of it, however, than merely healthful exercise. He developed his character as sturdily as he did his calves. It may be said that the large majority of cadets manage to keep well within the prescribed number of demerits, and to spend their recreation more pleasantly than in walking extra duty.

Reports for untidiness mean an extra inspection during recreation; reports for slouching carry with them fifteen minutes of daily setting-up drill for a week. In fact, the penalty is of a corrective character wherever possible. If a cadet receives over a stated number of demerits for a term he is subject to being dropped for deficiency in discipline.

Procedure in Serious Cases of Discipline.—Some serious breaches of discipline carry with them special penalties, such as a large assignment of extra duty, confinement to room or limits, reduction to ranks if an officer, and in extreme cases, dismissal. In such cases the cadet is tried by a court martial consisting of officers of the faculty and at least one cadet. He is represented by a member of the faculty, whom he is permitted to select. His case is reviewed and the action of the court approved or disapproved by the superintendent of the school. This is immeasurably superior to the passing of judgment on a boy in such serious cases by one man, however competent and experienced he may be. The whole proceeding carries with it dignity and impressiveness and at the same time an opportunity for dispassionate judgment that is most effective.

The following is the report of the proceedings of an actual court martial, the name having been changed and the evidence omitted:

CASE ONE

Proceedings of a general court martial, which convened at Culver, Indiana, pursuant to the following order:

SPECIAL ORDER No. 84

May 15, 191—

A general court martial is hereby ordered to meet in the faculty room of the Culver Military Academy at 4 P. M. on this date or as soon thereafter as practicable, for the trial of such cadets as may properly be brought before it. The court will sit without regard to hours.

Detail for the court:

Captain J. Q. Adams, U. S. A., Retd.
Captain J. F. Grant, C. M. A.
Lieutenant M. A. Andrews, C. M. A.
Lieutenant H. W. Baur, C. M. A.
Cadet Captain A. O. Parker, C. M. A.

Captain H. F. Noble, C. M. A., Judge Advocate.

By Order of the Superintendent.

R. Rossow, C. M. A., Captain and Adjutant.

The court met pursuant to the foregoing order at 4 P. M., May 15, 191—

Present all members of the court and the Judge Advocate.

The court then proceeded to the trial of Cadet L. T. Thorne, private Company B, who, having been brought before the court, introduced Captain G. H. Crandall, C. M. A., as counsel.

R. F. Barnes was duly sworn as reporter.

The order convening the court was read to the accused and he was asked if he objected to being tried by any person named therein, to which he replied in the negative.

The members of the court and the Judge Advocate were then duly sworn.

The accused was then arraigned upon the following charges and specifications:

CHARGE I. Off limits in violation of Article 86 of the Regulations of the Culver Military Academy.

Specification 1. In that the said Cadet L. T. Thorne, private Company B, did go off limits without permission. This at the Culver Military Academy on the afternoon of May 14, 191—

Specification 2. In that the said Cadet L. T. Thorne, private Company B, having no boating permit from his parents on file in the Commandant's office and knowing that such was required in order to go boating, did wilfully go on the lake in a sailboat.

CHARGE II. Attempting to mislead an officer while on official duty in violation of Article 85 of the Regulations of the Culver Military Academy.

Specification 1. In that the said Cadet L. T. Thorne, private Company B, having gone on the lake in a sailboat and having failed to return to the Academy in time for parade, did apply to the assistant surgeon to be excused absence from parade on the ground of illness. This at the Culver Military Academy on the afternoon of May 14, 191—

Specification 2. In that the said Cadet L. T. Thorne, private Company B, did feign illness to the officer of the day and to the assistant surgeon. This at the Culver Military Academy on the afternoon of May 14, 191—

To which charges and specifications the accused pleaded as follows:

To the first specification, Charge I: "Guilty."

To the second specification, Charge I: "Guilty."

To the first charge: "Guilty."

To the first specification, Charge II: "Not guilty."

To the second specification, Charge II: "Not guilty."

To the second charge: "Not guilty."

(The record of the evidence is necessarily omitted on account of lack of space. The assistant surgeon of the academy, the officer of the day and several cadets

were called as witnesses. The evidence of cadets showed that the accused had exerted himself to a considerable degree in rowing back to the academy in the hot sun; also that he had complained of feeling ill before it became apparent that he would be absent from parade. The testimony of the assistant surgeon was to the effect that he had administered an emetic to relieve the distress of which the cadet complained, but found nothing in the stomach which would account for the cadet's illness, but that it was possible for one who had overtaxed himself to feel sick at the stomach even though he had no indigestible food therein. The evidence indicated further that the cadet knew that the real cause of his absence from parade was not illness of which he complained, but his unauthorized boating trip. Hence he was properly held guilty in attempting to mislead in the latter instance, but exonerated from the charge of feigning illness.)

The accused, the reporter and the Judge Advocate then withdrew and the court was closed, and finds the accused, Cadet L. T. Thorne, private Company B:

Of the first specification, Charge I: "Guilty."

Of the second specification, Charge I: "Guilty."

Of the first charge: "Guilty."

Of the first specification, Charge II: "Guilty."

Of the second specification, Charge II: "Not guilty."

Of the second charge: "Guilty."

The Judge Advocate was then recalled and the court reopened. The Judge Advocate stated that he had no evidence of previous conviction to offer.

The Judge Advocate then withdrew and the court was closed, and sentences him, Cadet L. T. Thorne, private Company B, to be dismissed from the Culver Military Academy.

The Judge Advocate was then recalled and the court at 5:30 P. M. adjourned *sine die*.

(Signed) J. Q. ADAMS, U. S. A., President.
H. F. NOBLE, Judge Advocate.

ACTION OF REVIEWING AUTHORITY

HEADQUARTERS, CULVER MILITARY ACADEMY,
CULVER, INDIANA, May 15, 191—

In the foregoing case of Cadet L. T. Thorne, private Company B, the findings of the court are approved. It is one of the most highly prized traditions of the academy that the cadet's word may be accepted without question. Yet consideration must be given to the fact that this cadet is in his first year in the corps of cadets, and is not yet fully imbued with the spirit of the school. Furthermore, with the exception of the present offense his record in discipline and attention to duty have been excellent. The sentence is therefore approved, but is commuted to one hundred hours of penalty duty and confinement to the academy grounds until the same has been performed.

By Order of the Superintendent.

NOTE.—The superintendent may lessen, but may not increase, the penalty assigned by a court martial. Except in cases of dismissal or reduction of an officer to ranks he may not change the form of the punishment.

CHAPTER VIII

IDEALS OF THE MILITARY SCHOOL

THERE are some very intelligent people who decry military training for boys on the ground that it breeds militarism. I have seen their views change after actually observing the work of a good military school. The fine distinction that Bishop Fallows has made between militancy and militarism is well exemplified in the ideals of such a school. Military training of boys properly conducted gives them the true fighting spirit, the spirit that every man must have who renders effective service in a good cause, whether it be on the military or social firing line. The uniform of the best type of military school stands for that sort of spirit—for chivalry and for fair play, not for injustice or oppression of the weak.

The military instinct is natural to most boys, and it may be utilized to teach them valuable lessons of loyalty, patriotism and discipline without making them bloodthirsty or warlike. Several years of military training is usually quite sufficient to gratify a boy's curiosity and satisfy his desires for military life. He is then content to enter upon commercial or professional pursuits, a citizen prepared to serve his country either in peace or war. He has gained some small conception of what the horrors of war may be; he has some

taste of the arduous side of military life, and he will be logically a greater lover of peace than the boy not so trained, and a most stable citizen when the hysteria of war threatens the nation.

Preparation for Citizenship.—If one doubts the value of military training in equipping the boy for civil pursuits he has but to examine the roster of *eleves* and graduates of those older military institutions such as Norwich, the Virginia Military Institute and the Citadel of South Carolina, and to note how many of these men have achieved distinction as lawyers, doctors, statesmen, ministers, engineers and in fact in every walk of life. Even younger schools, such as Culver, show a roster of men who, though but barely in the arena, are for the most part holding positions of unusual trust and responsibility for men of their age. West Point, an institution designed purely for the training of the professional soldier, can point to its graduates who have entered civil life with no less pride than to its roll of distinguished soldiers. In this connection I quote from a paper entitled "Education from a Military Viewpoint," contributed to the *North American Review* in 1908 by Colonel Charles W. Larned: "West Point has been in existence one hundred and five years. During that period it has produced four thousand five hundred and seventy-one graduates, of whom two thousand three hundred and seventy-one, more than one-half, had entered civil life up to 1902. Ignoring its military record of four hundred and sixty general officers, it has contributed to the forward impulse of the world one president of the United States, one president of the Confederate States, three presidential

candidates, two vice-presidential candidates, one ambassador, fourteen ministers plenipotentiary, twenty-seven members of the United States Senate and House, eight presidential electors, sixteen governors of states and territories, one bishop, fourteen judges, seventeen mayors of cities, forty-six presidents and fourteen regents and chancellors of colleges and universities, fourteen chief engineers of states, eighty-seven presidents of railroads and corporations, sixty-three chief engineers of railroads and public works, eight bank presidents, two hundred attorneys and counselors at law, twenty clergymen, fourteen physicians, a hundred and twenty-two merchants, seventy-seven manufacturers, thirty editors, a hundred and seventy-nine authors, besides artists, architects, farmers, planters and many others belonging to useful trades and professions. Three of its alumni are in charge of the greatest engineering work of history, the Panama Canal, and one is reorganizing the police force of the second city in the world."

The Spirit of Democracy.—A distinct advantage possessed by the military school is its spirit of democracy. Adventitious distinctions of wealth and social position are laid aside when the boy dons his uniform. From then on only merit counts. Spending money is limited by regulations to a modest sum, and even if parents fail to cooperate with the rules and send extra spending money, there is little opportunity for its use. Rooms are the same for all cadets and are plain and simple in their furnishings, while the uniform serves as an effective check to lavish dressing.

In an article on *Famous American Schools,* which

appeared some years ago in one of the magazines, a master of one of the schools described was quoted as saying: "We do not exactly refuse the son of the blacksmith, but he would not be comfortable here." No matter from what humble circumstances a boy may come, if he has the right stuff in him he may win recognition in the military school. If the son of the blacksmith were the best man, he would, in the course of two or three years, become a cadet officer, and the son of the millionaire would render him respect and obedience. If, on the other hand, the son of the millionaire were the best man, he would be the cadet officer and the blacksmith's son would respect him, not for his wealth, but because of the real stuff that was in him. They would both be awkward enough at first. Military regulations and drill would be as unfamiliar to the one as to the other. While one boy was having some rough edges polished off the other would probably be losing a little self-conceit and acquiring a new conception of what constitutes real merit. Their "plebe" year of probation would be spent in an atmosphere in which no boy with honesty of purpose and real manliness need feel uncomfortable and its finish would find each "tub standing on its own bottom," and each boy receiving only such recognition or promotion as his own efforts and worth entitled him to receive. Under such a system the criticism that private schools breed snobbery need not apply.

The Ideal of Service.—The ideal of service is ever before the cadet. He must work for the general good of his squad, his company, his battalion. His pride

in his corps or the subdivision of which he is an immediate member is always an incentive to him to put forth more effort than he would be inclined to make for purely selfish reasons. If he becomes a cadet officer, he must learn that merely to exercise command is insufficient; he must serve the best interests of those under him. He must make some personal sacrifices of time and pleasure in order to do so. If his conception of an office is merely the satisfaction of ranking others, of wearing insignia, of obtaining privileges, he is not apt to hold it long. Sooner or later will come the report for neglect of duty and the order reducing him to ranks.

The ideal of service in military life was the theme of a brief and informal talk that President Wilson made to the cadets of the Culver Black Horse Troop in the course of his campaign for the presidency in 1912. A detachment of these young troopers had ridden fifteen miles to a neighboring town to hear Mr. Wilson speak. At the conclusion of his formal address they escorted him to the train. At the depot, standing in his automobile, Mr. Wilson beckoned the cadets to ride in close about him, and after thanking them in gracious and friendly fashion for the courtesy shown him, said:

". . . I am always glad to see the uniform worn in connection with education. To me it has a deeper meaning than as an attribute to war. It means discipline, of course, but in addition it signifies that a man is not living for himself, but for the social life at large. I am a great advocate of international peace. Because you wear the uniform I do not think you are less so.

But I do not think we will ever have world-wide peace until we can look upon it with the splendor that we look upon war. There is something wonderfully appealing to our natures in war. We hear of mothers hanging swords and muskets of their sons on the walls so that they may constantly see them. We do not hear of any one hanging as an ornament of a household any of the symbols of peace, such as a ledger, a yard-stick, a pick or a shovel. The reason for this is that man supports himself with these implements, but he is doing a service for some one else when he is using a sword or a rifle in battle; and modern people seem to hold a service they do to help themselves below the things they do to help others. So what I want you youngsters to remember is that you owe a duty to society which is above any interest you can have in self; that you do the greatest good to the world when you live in it to serve your fellow men."

The Manual-Training High School

By Milo H. Stuart

The Manual-Training High School

CHAPTER I

PROVINCE OF THE PUBLIC MANUAL-TRAINING HIGH SCHOOL

WHEN Arnold Bennett had visited this country, he hastened to give us the volume, *Your United States.* He was acting on the belief that one sees many distinguishing characteristics more clearly at first sight than ever afterward. There is some truth in this. Unfamiliarity affords quite a vantage point when it comes to looking at a thing without prejudice. But it would not be worth my while to assume any fine air of impartiality toward the subject in hand. You would discover before you had read three pages that I love the public high school of the manual-training type with all my heart and soul. This is hardly a politic thing to say at the outset. The attitude of being on a pedestal and looking down on one's subject seems so much more learned. But fourteen years of intimate connection with such a high school can hardly be expected to leave the mind unprejudiced.

Close Kinship of Great Schools.—Now that I have confessed to an enthusiasm for a high school, I suppose you expect me to write about the beauty of such an "in-

stitution" in a democracy, about the modern developments in buildings and equipment, about enlarged curricula, and all the other points of which we boast when we are in the mood. But nothing could be further from my mind. Doctor Frank Crane, in speaking of his love for the church, says simply that he loves his own denomination, not for the ways in which it differs from other Christian denominations but for those points which it has in common. "My ideal church," he says, "is called The Church of the Greatest Common Divisor. . . . Inside of this Greatest Common Divisor grow all the sweet flowers of the religious feeling. Outside are its baptized animosities." Certainly it is true that the cardinal beliefs and practises common to all Christian churches constitute a likeness beside which the differences are less than petty. All our real schools, likewise, are of close kin. The essential elements of a great school are much the same, whether it be public or private, scholastic or trade. For a school worth the name is not building nor equipment, nor even course of study. It is people. Wherever boys and girls are drawn to a real man or woman and there learn the beauty of soul and mind, or useful accomplishments, there is a great school. It is nowhere else. Building and apparatus are mere clutter except they be dominated by a strong and wholesome personality.

"New" High Schools Old as Human Nature.—This might seem trite, but it isn't. We do not half realize that no juggling of the course of study, no enlarging it, can by any magic change the simple universal law that teaching is a contact of life with life, and

that wherever men and women have been really educated, there lingers the memory of a great teacher. My love for the high school is rooted in the intimate knowledge of honest men and women who teach, and of younger folk who learn. The time when Doctor Arnold taught Tom Brown and his comrades is not so long ago; the place is not so far away. It is not so distant to that little schoolhouse in the "edge of the sweet pine woods" where Dominie Jameson taught and of which Ian Maclaren writes: "Perhaps I ought to be ashamed of that school-house, but yet it had its own distinction, for scholars were born there, and now and then to this day some famous man will come and stand in the deserted playground for a space." Our manual-training schools are not so new after all, when the heart-life of them is world-old. The nature of our most improved cosmopolitan high schools is simply *human* nature.

Distinctive Atmosphere of Schools.—And yet because all schools are the same in their deepest elements, we are not to infer that they are monotonously alike. On the contrary, the very fact that they are each dominated by personality means that every one has a distinct atmosphere. It is an interesting thing to a sensitive person to visit them and try to define the intangible spirit that hovers about each school. It is like reading the originals from which novels are taken. Some are private and so secluded that we fancy we have a book of Hawthorne wherein the characters are few, are closely studied, and are usually worth the study; others have as distinct flavor of romance in all their social life as have the pages of Scott; some are so full of beautiful dreams and ideals of living, so far re-

moved from the practical, that we are reminded of poor, improvident, lovable Oliver Goldsmith.

High School Like Novel of Dickens.—But the public high school could hardly be classed as any one of these. Rather, it is a novel of Dickens—full of faces; faces, too, that vary as much as even Dickens could ever imagine. There are David Copperfields ready to believe and be taught; Oliver Twists with pathetic home stories; little Sissy Jupes with dreamy eyes; wholesome Agnes Warfields; spoiled Steerforths who know too much of the world; yes, and there are Aunt Betsy Trotwoods who look the part of severe schoolma'ams and hide hearts big enough for any boy to walk into; Doctor Strongs with great faith in men in the making—it would take a winter evening to name the faces which come peering into the windows of the mind when the word *high school* is mentioned to any one who has lived very long in one of them.

It may be that you have not been in the habit of thinking of our high schools as "just people." They are not usually presented in that light in our magazines. But the reason for that is clear. Those who are at work in these schools, those to whom the visions of faces naturally come, do not have much time for writing. They have to leave that to casual observers. The result usually is that some one writes from a height of criticism so lofty that, as he looks down at the school, the people have vanished or become specks, and he beholds only the roof and walls of a state-owned institution. That's the reason, too, why these same writers solve all the high-school problems without difficulty.

It's so much easier to know what to do with a brick wall than with Tommy Traddles!

Reasons why High Schools are Intensely Human. —But if you approach on the level ground and gain a first-hand intimate knowledge, I believe you will find a public high school one of the least "institutional" and most intensely human projects that has entered into the heart of man for a long while. They have many faults, these schools, but a lack of being in touch with boys and girls is not one of them. They have no chance at all to acquire that vice. They could not become seclusive if they wished. The first requisite for a secluded school is the power of selecting desirable candidates for admission. This the public high school can not do. Even the old ironclad rule that those entering must have completed the grammar grades is now being often broken in the interest of overgrown boys behind in their work. But that is not half the story. If a high school were expected to reach only those boys and girls who apply for admission, its contact with life would be divided in two. Contenting itself with those who naturally come to it, it might devote its whole time to cherishing within its walls time-honored practises of teaching, to achieving standards of scholarship and accomplishment, to fostering traditions of honor. Devotion to just those things has given the world some of its greatest centers of training—the Rugbys, the Etons, the Phillips-Exeter academies. It would seem that to attain these virtues is exalted enough purpose for any school. It is high enough, higher in truth, than the public school, or any other, may fully reach for some time yet; but it is not the full task assigned. The pub-

lic high school must not only serve those who come to it, but must reach out to those who do not come. Let a man among us forget this and for an instant take pride in the high standard of his school, he is sure to be humbled by the words, "Yes, but it isn't reaching *half* the people for whom it was intended!" No standards of scholarship, nor of accomplishment, no traditions of honor, even, can enable any public high school to fulfill its purpose unless those standards and traditions be translated into varied enough language to speak to the hearts of the children of its community. That is why our problems are so intensely alive, embodied in boys and girls. That's why we keep aware all the time of the truth of David Harum's remark: "There's as much human nature in some folks as there is in others, *if not more.*"

Province to Reach all Boys and Girls.—We have said that the high school is expected to reach the boys and girls of a community. Did it occur to you that we meant *all* of them? It is a rather remarkable standard of judgment, come to think of it, to hold a school accountable for those whom it has never had. Suppose a school of music is turning out real musicians. It has high standards and is able to inspire most of its students to attain to them. Does anybody discount all this because there are many boys and girls within a small radius whom it is *not* instructing? If any privately endowed school is giving a group of boys superior training, does any one minimize that service because there are scores of boys in the vicinity not enrolled in the courses? But a public institution is different. If any organization shares that great glory said to accrue

to all servants of the state, it must be willing to bear a burden proportionate. The state needs to have all of its boys and girls trained in their teens. Taking the country as a whole, it has no servant other than the public high school to do this. It follows, then, in what seems a perfectly logical manner, that the responsibility of the high school is to every boy and girl in its community, rather than to those who happen to be enrolled in its courses. The success of any school, just as of any person, is to be judged by the completeness with which its mission is fulfilled. It is not the business of the music school or of any privately endowed school to teach everybody. But it is the province of the public high school—Heaven help us!—to reach for good *every* boy and girl in its community.

Even in this age of overlapping activities, I do not know of any one else who claims this territory. Generally speaking, even the church and the home are quite willing for the school to have it. The saloons, cigarette stores, gambling houses and other resorts are prepared to give little touches in the making of character, but nobody ever heard of them wishing to claim any of their own products. In this regard, they are models of self-effacement. Considering that all their time and energy, day and night, are devoted to the (de) formation of character, it is really touching to see how willing they are to accord to the schools all the credit.

Consequent Peculiar Accountability.—In accordance with this conception of its duty, it is the style just now to lay at the door of the public high school all of the failures of the present generation. The reasoning necessary to reach this conclusion is amazingly simple.

If the one failing be a graduate, the delinquency is caused by attending the school; if he is not a graduate —as happens sometimes—it is still the fault of the school *in not having attracted him.* The comical part of it is that we school people generally believe this just as much as anybody. We ourselves really think the public schools ought to be able to counteract any home and community spirit of commercialism and graft; uncensored moving pictures; vile theaters; saloons; gambling places; disreputable houses; dime novels; daily papers blazing out murders, war and divorces; any street vulgarity; any unhappy home conditions; to say nothing about bad heredity at the outset. With morbid conscientiousness we blame ourselves whenever a boy or girl goes wrong. I remember hearing an educator, prominent in his time, give a touching description of a visit to a prison, reaching his climax with the words, "As I looked into the face of each criminal, I thought, 'Some teacher, somewhere, has failed to do his duty!'"

But let it be said in fairness that we are equally quick to appropriate successes. Whenever a boy or girl, with whom our school has had to do, achieves distinction, we take to ourselves great glory. There are enough signal successes to keep us from growing melancholy, so perhaps this is as it should be.

Manual Arts Introduced for Those not in School. —This feeling that the public high schools are accountable for the welfare of every boy and girl in a given community may be serio-comic. It may tend toward laxity on the part of some parents and of many churches and civic leaders. But it's at the foundation of a large part of the very best development of our

schools. It lies at the root of the whole manual-training activity. Manual arts were not introduced primarily for the sake of the pupils who were in the schools, but for those who were out of them. It was an attempt to translate useful accomplishment into the language of those boys and girls to whom books do not appeal. If a school is growing rapidly on its vocational side, you may be sure those designing its courses feel full responsibility not only for those in the school, but for those out of school. The point is illustrated by the old story of the little boy who became lost from his father on a crowded city street. Spying a policeman the child ran up to him and asked breathlessly: "Say, mister, have you seen any man going along *without* his little boy?" Wherever that father was, you may be sure his whole activity was determined by the fact that he did not have his boy. Our manual-training high schools are trying to find their children.

Purpose Constant Through Experimentation.—This view-point affords the one key to an understanding of schools of this type. They do experiment. They do constantly introduce new courses. They do allow children to choose their own studies. They do consult the desires of street urchins as much as of college professors in deciding what to teach. They do vary their curricula to suit individual communities. They do all these things and many more, not because they are fickle as to their own purpose, but because they are so entirely constant. It is the experimenting of a scientist who is exhausting every method to accomplish a single end. It is their business to change as long as one boy or one girl is failing because of lack of their service.

I am not sure that this is so far from ideal. I am not sure that it is any drawback to a school not to become set in a certain mold. "To change and change is life" is something more than poetic fancy. But, at any rate, this regarding a curriculum as a thing to be remolded constantly to meet the needs of boys and girls—yes, even the *desires* of boys and girls—is at the very core of our modern high-school development.

Plight Without Help of Schools.—The comparison to the lost youngster might have been pressed further, for, literally, the children whom we are trying to reach are lost on the streets of our cities. They are not hunting up policemen and asking questions, however. They do not know they are lost. They are the elevator boys and cash girls, delivery boys, proud in the possession of first-earned money, not as yet bothered by any visions of monotonous, dwarfed futures. The paths on which they are walking lack the first essential of a highway—namely, a destination. They are proud at first to be among laborers at all. How can they realize that most of them are doomed to remain among the unskilled? They are not necessarily the lazy nor incompetent. They may indeed be the most active and impatient. Whether our standards of scholarship are being lowered to reach them will be discussed later. But, really, that is not the vital question. The real point at issue is whether what is given them in our schools is ahead of what they are elsewhere acquiring—these boys and girls who are passing through adolescence without training of intellect, without vision of the future, without guidance in morals—these boys and girls who are

to be citizens of our state. There is no question but the purpose of reaching them is worth maintaining.

It is plain to be seen that if any one desires a selective school, he is not interested in this type. Instead of exclusiveness, these manual-training high schools frankly seek every class. If the man is afraid for his boy to associate with "butcher, baker and candlestick maker," let him send him elsewhere. If he believes in democracy "only in a Pickwickian sense," he can not approve of the principle governing these schools. But let no one forget that eternal laws still hold, and that the character of a school, as of an individual, is not lowered by service. That care for human kind, which reaches out to every boy and girl outside, puts warmth of motive into daily work inside. If we wonder why the high schools are of late growing past all expectation, it is but because they are forgetting themselves a little in trying to render a great service. 'Tis only a bit of that old paradox, spoken by One who knew every art of teaching: "He that would save life, must lose it."

CHAPTER II

THE PLACE OF MANUAL ARTS IN THE CURRICULUM

WE have said that it is the province of manual-training high schools to train all the boys and girls of a community; that the course of study is changed and developed constantly to serve this purpose; that manual-arts courses were introduced primarily to reach those out of school. I hope no one has gained the impression from this, that a manual-arts course is used as a kind of bait to tole a boy into school, much as the farmer holds an ear of corn in front of an untrained colt while he slips the halter on, preparatory to harnessing and working. But then, if some one has this impression, why should I wonder? There are high schools which are actually doing it. Some schools, which pretend to have manual-training work, have in truth only an ear of corn as bait, and a nubbin at that! This is to be expected. Everything worth imitation has its counterfeit, but that is nothing against the genuine—quite the opposite. Our market would never have been flooded with prunes mislabeled "Santa Clara," if the genuine Santa Clara prune had not been a superior variety. The essential thing is that those who care to know the truth may be able to tell the real from the imitation.

The Most Common Imitation.—The brand of imitation already referred to is the most common. It is

the one in which a few "stunts" in carpentry and forging or mechanics are tacked on to the regular work and in no sense a part of it. The schools concerned are in reality of the old-time academic type. The only well-organized, carefully-taught courses which they offer are mathematical or classical. When a boy comes along, however, who is not of a bookish turn, they give him a little carpentry on the side, as a kind of anesthetic to render him unconscious of pain while academic operations are performed on him. Considering how agonizing some of the classical work is to certain temperaments, it is a mercy to administer an anesthetic, only please don't tell the boy he has had a course in manual arts. This use of manual training as an anesthetic is frequently commended on high authority, just as if it were a patent medicine. Not so long ago a professor in one of our state universities wrote: "If it [manual training] be the means of keeping the boy in the high school and of ultimately bringing him to college, then it may be regarded as having served a good purpose. This, I think, is its principal function."

Main Function to Give Fair Chance.—Now the men and women who are in earnest introducing and maintaining manual-arts work have a very different idea of its main function. The genuine manual-arts courses have not had their origin in any spirit of concession or compromise, but in that of simple justice. They are not planned to coax a boy into submitting to an education, but to give him a fair chance in obtaining one. To be clear, suppose we had a school of music. Four boys, one naturally a musician, one an artist, one a scholar and one a mechanic, start to at-

tend. The musician succeeds admirably; but the artist, scholar and mechanic drop out disinterested. Will any one say that the three latter had a fair chance? Now, without any supposition, we *have had* classical schools designed for the scholar. There have been little side touches of music and art, but absolutely nothing of building and mechanics. And that in an age of machinery. All that a manual-training high school tries to do, is to organize courses which shall give boys of one trend of mind as fair a chance as those of another. This can be done only approximately, as no two boys are exactly alike, but the attempt to do it is revolutionizing our secondary education.

Manual Arts on Same Basis as Academic Work.—It is evident that to give a boy of mechanical bent as good an education as one of classical turn, it is necessary that the mechanical course shall be as well planned, as complete, as difficult, as is the course in language, history or mathematics. That is exactly the basis on which these courses are organized in our best high schools. There is not the slightest abbreviation of any course formerly offered, but alongside of the academic courses and on exactly the same credit basis, are courses in carpentry, mechanics, and as many other lines of manual arts as a given school is able to offer.

Difference Between High School and Trade School.—It will be seen that this differs from a trade school in that the latter makes every subject bend to meet the needs of a certain trade, while the high school must needs teach the elements common to many trades, just as in its classical and scientific courses it teaches the elements common to many professions. Mechanical

drawing, for instance, is the alphabet of all the industries so that a thorough course in that prepares for any one of them. Doctor Jordan's terse statement applies in this connection: "There is all the difference in the world between the *elements* of a subject and its *fragments.*"

Artisan Stage of Growth.—In taking so serious a view of manual arts, it may be urged that we are overstepping the mark; that many boys of high-school age, who clamor for manual work, are destined never to become artisans, nor engineers, nor to be at all connected with the industries; that therefore a little side play is all these boys need. But we ought to know better than that how to treat the adolescent stages of growth. Every boy who longs for manual training, whether he will later be an artisan or not, is one *at that time.* His need is just as real as if it were permanent. His educational instincts may die from lack of the nourishment they then crave, just as truly as if that were to be his food always. It's rather disastrous to deny water to tadpoles on the theory that they are going to develop legs later and will be able to hop around on dry land.

Educational Value of Any Subject.—This brings us to a discussion of the exact educational value of the manual arts,—whether a course which has to do with training of the hand deserves a place alongside of courses in mathematics, English, foreign languages, history and the sciences. That's a formidable group of subjects, long tested. Many a great man bears witness to the worlds of beauty he has discovered through them. It is no light thing to claim that a pet fledgling

deserves a home amid such a family. But after all, we are not looking in the right direction to tell the comparative educational worth of a subject. We should be observing not the studies, but the boys who take them,—seeing the comparative effect in the development of life. The depth of a study, so far as its educational value is concerned, is determined not by the subject-matter, but by the mind which studies it. The end sought is not to give human lodging to any set of truths, however beautiful, but to transform the human mind into a thing which is itself true and beautiful. However much we may fail to apply it, we all believe this in theory. But a live boy is so apt to tangle up the threads of our theories, and it's hard to straighten them out again.

Boy's Longing a Clue to His Need.—Still, it's easy in the presence of a boy in the teens to believe Mary Skrine's remark in Bedesman 4: "We are not all heads, like carrots." Surely there's the physical in a boy and our anxious hearts tell us there's a moral side as well. We needn't go harping about the fact that we need to develop all three sides: physical, mental and moral. The thing to do is to see if we can find something which will grip the whole boy and help shape him aright. I can imagine no better way to get a clue to such a subject than by the boy's own appetite. Strange,—we eat greens in the spring-time because we crave them; later we find out we needed them then. We devour sweets as children, because we like them, afterward we find they were our proper nourishment. Yet we can not grasp the idea that there may be a connection

between what a boy craves and what his whole system needs.

The experiment of giving him his heart's desire has been tried, however. The results are before us. May we try to set forth briefly a few of the distinctive things which this work has done and is doing for boys? Perhaps the best way is by a few actual instances of individual boys. Obviously, names and exact locations must be omitted, but please be assured that it would be possible to locate every one, and, moreover, to multiply instances, not by the score, but by the hundred.

It Does Reach Boys Otherwise on the Street.— In the first place, the manual-arts instruction is reaching a vast number of boys who would otherwise go through their teens without training. It is difficult to demonstrate to just what extent this is true, but the fact that the instruction of manual training is coincident with the phenomenal growth in high-school attendance throughout the country is at least significant. In practically every case where manual training is introduced, the number of boys in the school increases at a bound. The simple announcement that a new class in applied mechanics would be organized, if enough boys wished it, brought to one of our technical schools twelve boys, no one of whom was in attendance at any school. These twelve not only completed the year of mechanical training, but took in connection with it English, applied mathematics and mechanical drawing. At the end of the year, eight of these boys were employed by manufacturing establishments in the city at from twenty cents to thirty-two cents per hour. Out

of that eight, six preferred to return to school the next fall rather than continue in the positions which they could still have held. They had caught a vision of the possibility of training in exactly what they wished to do. They were willing to work in shop a half-day—for that particular group was given a half-day of shop at a time—and spend the other half-day poring over studies which would have been distasteful had they not seen the practical bearing. That class has grown into a department, and two teachers are spending all their time giving the mechanical work, alone, to boys who had quit school entirely. The standard of their work and discipline is not merely passable—it is a point of strength in the school. The boys who meet them gain fresh purpose. Whole high-school classes literally brought in from the street are, of course, the exception. But individual boys are not.

Cases of Retreaters.—Marcus was a great lubberly fellow in the second year of high school. He was failing in half his work, but he did not especially care. He had long since ceased to expect success for himself. He entered the class in forging. It struck him as a thing he could do. He made an umbrella rack which was the best piece of forging done in the class. He took it home, proud. He was surprised that he could star in anything. He began to try in his other work, and from that time on, his card was clear of failures. A boy in the first year, who was ready to quit, entered an auto repair shop and suddenly the whole high school became worth while. To take a boy out of the group of retreaters and let him really star in anything, gives him a self-respect which will never let him take failure

for granted again. I believe high-school shopmen, generally, will bear out the statement that a class which does not contain one or two or three boys thus noticeably awakened is the exception.

"But," some conservative friend remarks, "the forging and auto work were not cultural studies. They were simply the means of making these boys care for the studies which do give culture." In what does the worth of a study consist? In the effect on the boy. And answer fairly, if algebra could be the means of that kind of a transformation in the self-respect and mental alertness of a boy, wouldn't you count that quite a star in its crown of glory?

Manual Arts as Training for Adolescents.— There's a reason for all this. High-school boys are in the midst of the period of adolescence. They need absorbing physical occupation. It gives an outlet to their restless energy. It allows no time for morbid thinking. It is a period of impatience. The boy wants to see the end of what he is doing. This gives him some tangible result of his work. Robert Louis Stevenson, you remember, used sometimes to indulge in making furniture. He said that a day spent furniture making was in many respects much more satisfying than a day spent writing. In the former, he could see just what he had accomplished, while in the latter, perhaps he had done something of account, perhaps not. It was hard to judge. If a man of Stevenson's mental grasp was at times oppressed by the intangibleness of mind work, how must a boy in the teens feel? It is too much to expect him always to be satisfied with work which he can neither see, nor touch, nor show to another.

It is not simply that the good he has accomplished becomes tangible; the mistakes glare at him. Nobody but himself, and possibly the teacher and part of the class, know it if he has bungled learning the conjugation of *amo;* but his father, his friends, anybody, could see if the edge were not true on his table. It would stay there in permanent form to remind him; but it doesn't, for no teacher worth the name will accept any work which is not true. To make a thing and make it right—is there anything better suited to train in moral rectitude?

As for mental training, while we make, we think. Why in church history are denominations always falling below the standards of their founders? Because the creed, being made, ceases to be an object of thought but becomes mere form. Whoever with idle brain made a thing he had never made before? Initiative, patience, invention, regard for fixed rules of construction; these qualities are simple necessities in good workmanship.

Many urge, however, that the manual work tends to materialism, to a love of money. On the other hand, it is the greatest safeguard against this vice. It is the sloven workman who is thinking of his pay. The work of a real craftsman can not be reckoned in money.

Incidentally, manual training divides the adolescent boys from the girls. It does this by a difference of occupation. They meet on common ground in certain classes and are separate in industrial occupations; an arrangement as natural as the home. The boy has all chance to develop masculinity without being separated from the refining influence of girls. They see each

other, but the association is not continuous. Many a girl, too, has been thankful that the boy has taken his manual work. A certain sense of domesticity is cultivated by the making of things; a man who can make has a soul a bit more congenial to a woman whose life is concerned in the details of home industry.

The physical work furnishes the relaxation of change, and a boy can carry from one-fifth to one-fourth more work than if he takes purely academic lines. This economy of time is a thing constantly counted on in making out courses of study.

All this has not taken into account the concrete preparation which these subjects give for after life to future artisans, engineers, business managers and professional men. This will be taken up in detail in another chapter, but certainly it is safe to take for granted without argument that they have as much concrete use in after life as any other studies in the curriculum.

Relation to College Entrance.—In giving a study full credit in a high-school course, there is an element to be considered, entirely aside from the intrinsic worth of the subject. That is its relation to college entrance. It is of no use to say in a grandiose manner that boys are preparing for life, not for college; that few are privileged to go on and that the relation of their course to college entrance makes no difference. Many of them do go on. Many more are inspired by the possibility of so doing. The road from kindergarten to the university being open to every child lacks little of being the very best feature of our American education, and I, for one, am not disposed to give it up. We need a little philosophy in our souls, however. We need to

know that in having to fight its way into college recognition, manual arts are only repeating the experience of every new subject. It is so much easier to demand money of a long-recognized stamp than to distinguish between the real and counterfeit modern, that our colleges and universities often refuse the genuine modern while accepting an ancient stamp which has ceased to pass as currency in the world at large.

Real Difficulty in Judging.—But to look at the college side a bit. It really is a nuisance to have a new subject come up for admission, uncertified, entirely unstandardized, with nobody in the college faculty who knows enough about it to judge its merit. Such a subject gives rise to the best and worst of teaching; to the best, for the ones introducing it have purpose, initiative, virility in teaching; to the worst, because the minute a subject is popular, untrained upstarts all over the country proclaim themselves ready to teach it. Moreover, it takes a person who really knows the art himself to distinguish the true from the false. One might think the equipment would form some basis for judgment. It doesn't. The teacher is the one item. Booker T. Washington once said that he never saw a more pathetic sight than a rosewood piano in a schoolhouse without a musician in the neighborhood. It's no less tragic, it's no less comic, to see extensive mechanical equipment and not a master mechanic in the faculty. But it takes a real mechanic to appreciate the comedy, and our university faculties do not as yet abound in these.

Standardized Subjects Easier to Handle.—When, however, there is assurance that the teacher knows his

business, it still takes time to standardize a subject so that the wayfaring man may know just what the pupil has taken. A study when "standardized" has lost something of its crisp freshness, but it is very convenient to handle. Why, ever since the Gallic war, teachers have been devising ways to teach the Ablative Absolute with the general result that "All things being ready, nothing is now lacking," except the pupils. A college man can tell by the bridge which is being built exactly how far the class has progressed. He isn't as yet trained to tell that when the bridges are made of wood instead of words, but that is coming.

No Halo of Association.—Again, a new subject has no halo of association. It is not recorded in the biographies of our great men that they studied these things in school. Every nation has its ancestor worship and that is part of ours. It is a good thing. It means that a subject must be real, virile, and meet a pressing need to overcome these things and make for itself a place. Physics has done it; chemistry, botany, zoology, and modern languages. Skepticism regarding these has almost vanished. Manual arts are making for themselves a place faster than any one of these ever did.

Taint of Toil.—And that, notwithstanding the fact that they have an added obstacle to overcome. They are connected in our minds with toil, real manual labor which soils the hands and calls for overalls. We might as well own it. There is a bigotry which mental training has always assumed toward manual, and our colleges and universities are not free from it. Let me hasten to say that in this they but represent the great part of

the world of adults. It's only the rarely wise, the children and the boys who accept work in its democracy.

Geometry Once a "Practical" Subject.—We insist on a man dying before we eulogize him, and it's hard for us to idealize a subject before it has laid down its practical life. I wonder how the Egyptians regarded geometry. You see, after the Nile overflowed each year, all their farm boundaries were obliterated and every man's fields had to be staked off again. Geometry was then in the making, and was the most practical, every-day thing with its roots in the silt of the Nile. No mummy has told me so, yet I'm sure some of their learned men must have thought it a crude subject to be taught to the young nobility. But if boys were the same then as now, how they must have reveled in splashing about taking measurements while the fields were still all puddly!

Quality of Boys Determines College Entrance.—After all, this boy nature decides the whole question of college entrance. Our higher institutions most glibly refused admission to manual *subjects,* but they are taking down the bars with all speed to admit the manual-trained *boys.* The quality of the graduates from technical high schools is the argument in favor of admission which can not be refuted. State universities and other higher institutions in the north, central and western states are already admitting almost as much manual work as boys wish to do. Our eastern institutions are rapidly taking steps in the same direction, so that we feel that Dean Davenport of the University of Illinois was fair in his judgment when, in speaking of "accepting anything which the schools do

and do well," he said: "Our experience is, so far as I am able to state it, that we gain in the matter of interest in life problems and ability to solve them far more than we lose in academic finish."

Place of Manual Arts in Curriculum Established.—The place of the manual arts in the high-school curriculum seems, then, to be well established. Their value as educational factors is thoroughly tested, and their recognition by higher institutions is following as a natural consequence. Association will come. They will acquire a halo of their own, or rather we shall come to see the one they have long been wearing. We have always known that Adam Bede was a man of culture, but then he lived in a book, and we are only just now coming to recognize him in Yankee disguise. This long time we have read with appreciation the story of the house built on sand and the one built on a rock, and many a fine sermon has been preached on it. It's just beginning to occur to us, that possibly one reason He who spoke it felt the force of the comparison was that He was a carpenter and had often had to do with the laying of foundations. How very old these "new" subjects are! I wonder that we could ever have feared to accredit them.

CHAPTER III

THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM AND PROJECT WORK

IT IS not enough that a school offer a wide and varied range of work. It is quite as important that it have a method of choice by which a pupil is able at all times to take the subject he most needs, together with those other studies which best correlate with it. That sounds simple enough, doesn't it? But let me confide to you a secret. You might never guess it, but it is true that fully half the work of the administration of a large cosmopolitan high school centers in its elective system. Outside the personnel of the teaching force, I know of no element of a school more important to the boy entering it, than the way in which his studies are chosen. The great majority of American boys coming up to high school have only the vaguest notion of what they are going to do in life. Those who think they know, more often than not change afterward. How can the studies of each one be so chosen as to give an insight into the lines best suited to him? Perhaps he knows exactly what he desires the first semester. Maybe by the second semester his whole life purpose has undergone a change. Shall he be allowed completely to shift lines of work? Suppose the next term he wishes to try something else? Suppose a boy insists on what you know he will never

use? The writer recalls the case of a colored boy of sluggish mind who persisted in wishing to give up all manual arts in favor of a study of Latin; "For," he argued, "I might want to clerk in a store and somebody might come in and ask for something in Latin!" He was quite sincere. He did not know but that the foreigners of his city talked Latin. You see the boys are not only ignorant of what they are to do, but in many cases they are pathetically in the dark as to the content of the subject they wish. Perhaps a boy very much admires a man of his acquaintance who is a chemist. The boy has no scientific gifts at all, and yet he is satisfied with nothing else than the subjects leading to that business. Here is a boy who learns well but slowly. How can he be given a chance to do the good work he likes to do without holding back that other boy who is so brilliant he gets through and loafs half his time? There is a wealthy boy who is credit hunting, intends to get through high school the easiest way so as to go to college and have a gay time. Here's a boy—and his name is legion—who's certainly good for something, but nobody has ever found out what.

Elective System a Necessity.—In view of all the complicating problems—whose number is exactly determined by the number of boys in school—many worthy educators give up and favor a rigid course of study, counting an elective system too cumbersome to handle. If they wish the course of study enlarged, they offer some six or eight set courses of study, limiting the choice to some one of these. But just consider how sensible that is. On going into a tailor shop to have your son fitted with a suit, the tailor tells you,

"Sir, your son is so very hard to fit, his figure is so far removed from any regular type, that I suggest you buy his clothes ready made!" The very thing which makes an elective system a problem makes of it a necessity.

Synopsis of One Plan.—May I offer a little synopsis of the plan of choosing subjects in the school with which the writer chances to be connected. Not that it is better than those of a score of other plans outlined in catalogues on the desk before me, but merely that the writer is surer that he understands it in every detail.

To begin with, there is just this much required work —three and one-half years of English and one year of algebra. I am not sure that the algebra can be justified, but English is needed by all and no one ever seems to doubt it. At first the English is general, then later, as pupils begin to find themselves, it is differentiated; some electing to study classics, others taking business English, still others the technical English of certain vocational courses.

Limitations to Choice.—Outside of these requirements, everything in a program of five hundred daily classes is subject to the choice of the pupil, but with certain limitations. He can not without special permission take more nor fewer than four regular subjects. About the only reasons for which fewer are ever granted are health and necessary outside employment. The privilege of extra work is made the reward of high grades—on the principle of the man who governed one city well being rewarded with having five to govern.

Another limitation is that of the year for which a subject can be chosen. Subjects are offered in the lowest year in which it is thought the boy can rightly carry them. He may elect any from lower years than his own.

The most important limitation, however, is that relating to continuity of work. In the printed course of study, after a given number of terms in a subject a star is placed. No pupil who selects this subject is permitted to drop it for another until he reaches the star. When he has met this requirement he is at liberty to select any other line. For example, the star in mathematics is placed at the end of two and one-half years, in history at the end of two years, and in German and Latin at the end of four years, etc.

All exceptions to this rule of sequence must be made by the principal personally. A boy completing his first year mathematics may wish to take up a business course, and therefore to substitute business arithmetic and bookkeeping for higher mathematics. This permission is readily granted, provided the choice is vocational and made with the thorough understanding of both pupil and parent that the course thereafter is to point to the office and not to college. A little card is used in this and similar cases, which reads as follows:

——— asks permission to omit ——— in order to take ———.

This change may prove a handicap to the pupil should he wish to attend college, since the subject to be omitted is usually required for college entrance. By signing below, the parent signifies that he realizes the above condition, but requests that the desired permission be granted. ————————, parent.

The whole object is not in any sense to curtail the choice, but to make sure that changes of work are made *for a purpose.* Incidentally the conferences with parents held when a boy wishes to change his line of study afford opportunities for the very finest kind of vocational guidance. Teachers concerned are called in, and the purposeful work of many a boy dates from one of these conferences.

At other times, when a boy wishes to change his work simply because he is hopelessly unsuited to it, he is given permission by sacrificing a credit. To illustrate, he has taken a half-year of language work. It is not considered that a half-year of language is worth anything when taken alone. If he wishes to change enough to sacrifice that credit and begin again in another line, it is regarded as better both for him and for the language class that he should.

There are classes, too, with greater rate of progress than others, taking two terms to do what some classes do in one. A boy who very much wishes geometry, for instance, but realizes his weakness, may elect to take a slow-going class, giving twice the time to the same credit that a more brilliant youngster takes. But ten to one, this earnest type of plodder is enough stronger in some other subject to make up for it. He may be a particular star in shop work.

A boy who has taken a strong manual-arts course wakes up at the last to the fact that he is cut out for a lawyer and wishes to go to a classical college. His whole senior year may be used for doubling on just the things he will most need. A considerable proportion of the graduates "post" a half-year or even longer

to complete the thing in which they find themselves absorbed toward the last. Isn't this interest which outlasts a diploma rather a favorable sign?

Does the Elective System Discipline?—This gives the vaguest outline of the workings of an elective system in one of the schools which attempts to tailor-make a suit to fit each boy. Does this plan of allowing a boy to do his own deciding as to whether he shall take art or science, blacksmithing or music, furnish him the right kind of training, or does it smack too much of humoring his fancy? Does it supply discipline to immature impulses? We know, of course, that the boys like it, but is that merely because it allows them to do as they please? Does it meet the real needs of adolescent boys in a firm, character-forming way? May we consider a few of these needs in this relation?

High School a Testing Ground.—The biggest thing ahead of the boy who enters high school is the choice of his life occupation. He is impatient to be doing the work of a man. Whether he knows what he is to do or not he wants to be at it. I wish that all of us who have to do with boys could understand that the picture given us of the one perfect boy—the Boy in the temple with His serious questions—was not the Supreme Exception, but instead, the Divine Type of all the other boys whom His Father had created. "I must be about my Father's business!" is, may we reverently think, the natural cry of the boy-heart. Years and years of training were to intervene before He was formally to enter that work. Whether we can bring the boy whom we meet to submit to the training test, that is the question. But first we must help him catch a

glimpse of what he is some time to do. The great work of the high school is that of a testing ground where he may gain insight into possible fields of work, try his hand in them, know what he can do, decide on his vocation. If he knows, he will be more willing to train for it. Consciously or unconsciously when he chooses, the supreme thing in his interest is given the central place. Let him with all intensity concentrate, take the things related the most closely. He will know then what that field has for him. Let him forget everything else. Other things can wait. Suppose he is a misfit; better find it out now than try the same thing later and fail, when failure means loss of position, of prestige, of years of time.

Second Age of Beginning.—He changes. How else can he gain an insight into many phases of life; how if he try but one? Mr. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, has aptly called the adolescent age "the second age of beginnings," and points out that the after-life of boys is almost always limited to those things begun in adolescence. His advice is to have them enter upon many lines of study: music, art, manual work and religion, that they may lay foundation for full after-lives. A boy may begin a thing, leave it alone a long while, and then return to it, but Mr. Claxton argues that he seldom begins an entirely new line after adolescence. All the time he is gaining insight into life. Giving no credit at all for disconnected study insures against a crop of smatterers. But suppose the boy's whole course is a series of intense, rather short-lived, experiments in life? What of that if he come out of it with a sound

mind, anxious to do his part and fairly well decided as to what it is?

Concentration the Natural Method.—The very fact that an elective system admits of this extreme concentration and subsequent change—of utter neglect of "well-balanced" course of study—is a big point in its favor. It may sound well to say the boy should carry one line of history, one of language, one of mathematics and the like and give himself an all-round development. Does he play that way? Does he practise baseball one day, tennis the next, track the next, and so on in orderly rotation? No; he plays baseball morning, noon and night, until his home may be told by the clutter of balls, bats and masks. Suddenly and unaccountably he quits, turns to tennis and is up at five o'clock playing before breakfast. Whatever he plays is at the time a distinct specialty. He works in exactly the same manner. If a boy is interested in electricity, there's no limit to the time he puts in on it. He makes private telegraph, wireless contrivances and the like until the whole place is littered with apparatus. If he wants to take a half-day in physics and study the lives of inventors in English, let him do it. If it isn't his line, he will find it out quicker that way than any other. If it is, he will have a start worth while.

Do you think such concentration will exhaust the interest? On the other hand, it's the leisurely-pursued subject which becomes wearisome. It is not effort which tires, but failure to see results. A boy who plays tennis hard will keep up interest much longer than one who occasionally tries it. Over and over again boys disinterested in shop one hour a day three

times a week, become absorbed if given a half-day five times a week.

It can not be denied that while a boy is concentrating on one line of work he is woefully neglecting all others. He may come to them presently. He may leave them out entirely. The whole plan proceeds on the theory that a boy may be really cultured, ready to do his part in the world, and be densely ignorant of very many things, things which are useful and good to know. Hawthorne and Lowell detested mathematics; Goldsmith could not master mathematics nor logic; young Walter Scott positively refused to learn Greek; Edison could hardly be said to have been cultivating himself all around when he was working at his chemical laboratory and printing press in a box-car; and perhaps most extreme of all, Jean Francois Millet records: "I never could get beyond addition in mathematics, and I do not understand subtraction and the rules following." We are fond of regarding such men as exceptions. But are they? Which of us has not some natural aversion?

But mind you, the inability to do a thing ourselves does not prevent us from forming real friendship with those who do. We can not just here enter into the effects of the attachments of boy specialists to other boys doing what they can not do. Enough to suggest that one such attachment does more to give a boy an insight into the real life of workers in another field than would any superficial drill in the technique of the subject. As long as the young chaps are thrown together daily, the narrowing process of specialization is not so alarming.

Moral Effect.—Allusion has already been made to the moral effect of concentration. There is also a distinct effect on the moral nature produced by merely being allowed to do something one wishes to do. It is a dangerous thing to make a boy feel he is an outlaw whenever he follows his own choice. To be asked to do the thing one desires not only takes the very core out of the habit of grumbling about work; it makes a boy feel that he and the school are on the same side. The writer believes principals will universally concur in the statement that the elective system eliminates over half the cases of high-school discipline.

Incidentally, no studies profit by this plan of selection more than the ones *not* chosen. Fancy, you who teach language, how blissful it would seem to have only those take it who like it. The friend of a subject ought to be the last man to wish everybody to take it. So much higher grade of work is possible when free choice has sifted the numbers.

"Snap Hunters."—But the elective system does not bring about the millennium in secondary education. There are "snap hunters." As long as water flows down-hill, there'll probably be boys as well as grown-ups seeking the easiest way. You remember in *Little Men* the boys were given their choice as to crops to cultivate in the garden. Tommy, as he frankly explains, "cattleated to hev beans as they are about the easiest crop agoin'." But, do you think he would have worked any harder if Mr. Bhaer had told him what to raise? He had had melons one year—a hard crop to care for. It had merely resulted in no crop at all. It's

certainly as bad to fail in a hard subject as to pass in an easy one. Besides, the credit hunters are far outnumbered by the impulsive, enthusiastic boys who, if allowed, would undertake more than they can do. Interest far outweighs ease with a healthy boy. Does he choose the easy thing in athletics? A boy will invariably assign himself a harder task than he will cheerfully perform if some one else assigns it. Even here we believe the elective system is justified.

Project Work.—We have been thinking of the elective system as applied to the selection of studies. Project work is the same idea carried a step further. The boy is allowed to choose what he shall make. He then becomes responsible for every part of the construction from pencil design and blue print on to the waxed finish. The idea of having boys make joints and joints, "just for training," is quite outgrown. The thing that gives discipline is intensity of application for a purpose. What boy is going to try as hard to make a practise piece of woodwork, doomed to the junk heap, as he will to make a table, a shoe rack or other simple piece of usable furniture which he himself has chosen? The advantages of project work need only to be enumerated to be recognized. It is by this means that the home becomes directly a part of the school; the father and mother will place no price on the articles their son has made; the boy is given a point of pride both in his school and his home; the work is intensely practical; initiative and originality are necessities; perseverance is equally so, for no incomplete work passes; every phase of workmanship

enters; time and effort become secondary to real concrete achievement.

The Elective System Without School.—Tony Weller, when Mr. Pickwick praised his son Samuel, appropriated the credit quite simply: "I took a great deal o' pains in his eddication, sir; let him run the streets when he was werry young, sir, and shift for hisself. It's the only way to make a boy sharp, sir." That remark is not all comedy. Sam Weller had the elective system and project work *without* any school attached. Even without the school, these two things do not always fail, as witness in our cities a number of cases of successful business men grown from newsboys and errand boys. It is not merely the Sam Wellers who suffer under restraint. One biographer of Washington Irving, in referring to the fact that he availed himself of less schooling than did his brothers, remarks: "Perhaps it is just as well, for his genius was left freer to develop itself!" Doctor Corson writes of Robert Browning: "His scholarship was extensive and, I would add, *vital,* it not having been imposed upon him at a public school and university, etc." *Imposed* upon him!

Elective System vs. Uniformity.—Do you think the introduction of an elective system and project work a bold thing? It is not half so audacious as making a fixed course of study and expecting all to follow it. When I consider the grades of character from Sam Weller to Robert Browning, I marvel at, I really envy, the self-confidence of any man who thinks he knows what all of these boys ought to study during the most

changeable period of their lives. "But," the professor who is such a marvel to me, innocently asks, "how else can we secure uniformity in the work which our boys take?" There is no other way. Thanks be, with an elective system there is no hope of being uniform. In her clever little story *Daddy Long Legs* Jean Webster clearly illustrates the meaning of this term. She sketches the picture of a little girl, hair stretched tight back into two outward extending pig tails, plain checked gingham apron—too big for her—face with scared expression. She labels her picture "Just *Any* Orphan." That is "uniformity."

When the boy "shifts for hisself" a little more in the public school, he may not be obliged to walk the street to become "sharp, sir." When he may take his choice of study with as much concentration as he wishes, it may perhaps no longer be said of his brother out of school, "his genius had a better chance to develop itself." When we utterly cast aside the arrogance of fixed prescription, it will hardly be correct to speak of education as "imposed upon him by the public school." The time is coming—we even claim that it is fully here—when an artist will be at a loss how to draw a composite picture of "just *any*" high-school boy!

CHAPTER IV

VOCATIONAL POSSIBILITIES OF A HIGH SCHOOL

IT IS hard for us, as children, to comprehend that the location of a rainbow entirely depends on the eye of the seer. What to me is only a bit of cloud, may be a rainbow to my neighbor. This is not easy for us to realize even when we are grown up. We are always forgetting it. We are constantly trying to place our labels: this is cloud, that is rainbow; this bit of work is drudgery, that is inspiration. It is all a matter of vision or lack of it. To "The Man with a Hoe," tilling the soil is a dull thing to do. It is working with clods, clods, clods, until the mind grows cloddish. To Hawthorne planting his garden at The Old Manse, the raising of cabbage and squash is fit subject for a choice bit of prose-poetry. The soil of New England, which Whittier plowed, is far rockier than that of Normandy, whose peasants Millet painted. Both Whittier and Millet did the work of peasantry, but were not peasants. They were both lords in the literal meaning of the word—"maintainer of laws"—the one by his pen, the other by his verse helping to establish the laws of the universe in the hearts of men.

"Vocational" a Relative Term.—Now if we can not distinguish between drudgery and inspiration except we know the point of vision, no more can we

tell the vocational and practical from the purely cultural. Yonder is a mountain. To many an observer it is a dream world, a place where our old earth dares to touch the sky. To the shepherd whose flocks may be glimpsed on its side, it is the simple means of a livelihood. Vocational, non-vocational; the thing which a certain boy is going to do to make a living is to him vocational, and the things which the other boys are going to do are to him non-vocational or purely cultural. Greek is a vocational study to the future Greek professor, and forging a real piece of culture, acquainting him with a contrasting phase of life. This is just as true as is its converse, that to the future blacksmith forging is vocational and Greek purely cultural. The thing I am trying to say is simply this: any subject taken with the purpose of making it a life-work is vocational. Any subject taken without this purpose is non-vocational. The introduction of vocational work in high schools merely means the infusion of serious life-work purpose into the courses. Happy is that high school whose every line of work is dignified by the presence of some earnest boy who reverences it enough to place it in the center of his life plans.

The purpose of this chapter is to show just how far, and in what ways, our enlarged high schools are serving and are learning to serve, the boy who thinks he knows what he wishes to do in life. We have said that the great majority of boys on coming to high school have not decided on the thing which they are eventually to undertake. A few of them have, however. Many more think they have, and of course

there is no way of telling the difference between these two classes, so that together they make a considerable number.

How May High Schools Teach Vocations?—With an elective system the question of life-work naturally comes up at the choice of studies for each term, so that every term sees a number of boys becoming more definite in their intentions. Just as fast as a boy's purpose is matured, it needs to find expression in definite training.

It is commonly supposed that all our civilized activities may be roughly classified into six lines—professional, commercial, agricultural, industrial, nautical and home-making. As the last named is more especially for girls, and the nautical is obviously limited to sea-faring folk—except the merest theory—our discussion will have to do with the first four of these great continents of activity.

Boys Who Are to Enter Professions.—What does a manual-arts high school do for a boy who is headed toward one of the professions? First, to take the word "profession" in the old narrow sense of theology, medicine or law. The first impulse is to say that this type of school does exactly the same as any other high school,—serves as college preparatory; these professions being entered by way of college or university. It does perform this function even more completely than did its predecessor, the academic high school, for it is a larger school and with its elective system has a much more highly differentiated course of study in even strictly academic lines. A boy may therefore choose with greater exactness what he needs to take. But it

does much more than this. It offers training for these professions as they are to-day—wedded to the industries. In theology, perhaps, the manual arts are not necessary, merely advisable,—a training for leisure hours, a road of sympathetic insight into lives of materially constructive men. But in medicine—what does the physician do? He acts as the sanitary agent of a city and needs to know about drainage, sewer construction, modes of ventilation, proper methods of building and the like; or he is a surgeon, and can not have his hand too carefully trained to the expert use and care of tools. We look over an alumni list of boys who when in high school were planning on law. Here is one who has become a corporation counsel for a railroad company. Perhaps his civil engineering is not necessary, but I doubt if you could buy it of him. Here is another who is a patent-office attorney. He was so mechanical he could scarcely decide on law and enthusiastically entered a patent office in Washington, D. C. His knowledge of mechanics is now as much a part of his equipment as is his knowledge of law.

But the "professions" have come to include scores of occupations. Teaching—there are a number of boys in every high school headed direct for this occupation. Just at the present time, demand for trained manual-arts teachers so far exceeds the supply, that the boys are tempted to enter the profession direct from high school, thus deferring more complete trade or college training. Do you know how rare these teachers are? England reached out clear to one of our central states for one of the teachers to train her soldiers in the expert use of automobiles.

What the Professions Include.—We can only touch the varied vocations. The boys who are to be artists are apt to decide early, as their inclination is usually pronounced. Our high schools boast a full share in the training of rising young artists. The writer of his own knowledge of high-school boys, can count some three or four whose work in serious art is coming to attain a rank which we dare to think means lasting pride to our state; some few gifted cartoonists; several architects, one winning a prize not long ago. Some of these are cases of "genius developing itself," but the vocational work of art is not limited to star-performers. Advertising is a field for which the high school prepares direct; as are also furniture design, interior decoration and drafting. It is hard to tell when the profession of arts drifts into the trade. Qualitative analysis of occupations is as complex as is that of minerals.

The profession of music is not as yet exclusively developed, but that is coming. A few of our large high schools have departments which begin to aspire to the vocational, and there is hardly one of the larger schools not growing on that side. We can not omit the field of invention, or does it belong among the professions? To see Edison in his laboratory dressed in working clothes, his hands acid stained, one might class him among the toiling mechanics. But perhaps the professions might like to claim him. Wherever the American inventor belongs, as a man, he surely, as a boy, is on his native heath in a manual-arts high school.

Then there are the engineering professions. No one ever questions that the manual high schools give as

direct training for these as is possible. Certainly, to be expert, the boy needs to continue in an engineering college, but the high-school work lays as direct a foundation for this as do four years of Latin for a fifth. It is a joy to reckon the number of constructive men who are doing useful work as civil engineers, building bridges, railroads, helping on great canals; as mining engineers, as electrical engineers, as mechanical engineers. These aggressive useful vocations appeal intensely to boys, and offer full scope to their love of adventure.

In general, it may be said that for the most of the learned professions a boy can take as direct training as he wishes, correlated with enough of the contrasting activity of the world to prepare him for spending his leisure hours and for becoming a fairly companionable friend to men in other lines.

Closely allied to the professions are the commercial vocations. Indeed, many of the boys who intend entering the professions take courses in stenography, typewriting, business English, accounting, business law and office practise, in order at first to help earn their way through college, and later to be able better to manage their own private business. Perhaps it is not often that a boy consciously plans to become a private secretary, but a boy who couples a good business course with his academic education is ready for such a place, or for a position of court reporter or private office man. It is with no difficulty at all that the business departments of our high schools work in conjunction with the office departments of reliable business firms of our cities. These offices are only too

glad to teach real office practise in return for large amounts of routine work done by pupils under direction of the teachers. Boys who wish to become bookkeepers, or office men or expert accountants, or bankers, can work out courses of ideal training. Sometimes they give half-time to practise work, half to school.

In this commercial world there is a whole line of occupations which require business training to be united with some one other line. There are printing establishments whose accountants need knowledge of printing as well as of accounts. Not two weeks ago the writer was asked by the head man of a pulley manufacturing plant to name a boy for accountant—one who could keep books and who at the same time was familiar enough with the processes of making the articles involved to be a judge of just how long it was taking to make each piece and how the process could be shortened. The man was willing to hold the position open until some boy, already apt, could complete a specialized course for just that thing. The position promises to become one of the most responsible and most remunerative in the plant. Every manufacturing firm requires such a cost accountant, also stockroom accountants, who know the materials with which they are dealing. How can boys who take their business courses apart from industrial training prepare for these positions?

Traveling salesmen must be business trained, of course, but they must also know the material which they are selling. It was one boy's course in mechanics which recently gave him a position selling milling machinery and he is more than fulfilling expectations.

To the boy, then, who wishes to enter commercial work, the commercial departments not only offer everything usually to be found in such courses, but he may elect also work which will teach him something of the materials which he is to sell, or of which he is to keep account. On the other hand, if his business leans toward the professions, he may supplement stenography with history, English, or whatever academic line is most needed.

Agricultural Occupations.—You observe that the attempt even roughly to classify vocations is a failure. Those classed as commercial are fully as much industrial. We deserve no credit at all in this country for not having a caste system. Fancy our trying to rate a man's social standing according to his occupation! But surely the agricultural division is more clearly defined. The men who till the soil do not have the freedom of the old darky of whom Thomas Nelson Page writes: "We ain't got no root to we foots." They are located. The study of specific soils, crops and ways to make the most of each form the basis of training of boys. This is one line for which rural high schools have in the main a better opportunity than large city high schools. In the writer's home city, however, there is an all-day vocational school in connection with one of the high schools. Fifty city boys were found who intended doing scientific farming. Not all of these, however, were ready yet to specialize, but those who were ready took over the care of a bit of farm land and keep going a strictly vocational all-day department of a high school. These boys study gardening, fruit raising, soils, chemistry, poultry raising,

insect pests, fruit preservation and the like, besides English and such other studies as they wish to elect. Had you thought how much better skilled our farmers are in production than in marketing? And that does not minimize the waste of resources in under-production, either. This means these boys need much commercial work and practical civics. They are required to take business accounting along with their market gardening. And has it occurred to you what it means vocationally to a young farmer to know how correctly to construct simple buildings? They even say a farmer's wife sometimes sighs in vain for neatly built chicken coops and hen houses. And the forging,—despite the age of autos, these farmers are apt to have horses needing to be shod, as well as plowshares to be sharpened. Nor is it longer possible for a man to be fitted to run a big farm without a knowledge of mechanics. Certainly no one boy can be adept in all the things a farm calls for, but the all-day agricultural department is one of the most satisfying lines which a boy in a farming state can enter.

The Industries.—We have purposely reserved to the last that division of vocations from which the manual-arts high schools receive their name—the industries. The tradesmen, however, say with truth that manual training was not introduced to prepare boys for trades. The industries were altogether overlooked in our educational system until about twenty-five years ago, when manual training was first introduced into our high schools. It was even then given a place, not as something useful, but as something "disciplinary" intended to train the hand. It was far

from the thought of those who advanced it to train workmen. After a quarter of a century, however, we have recovered from the first shock of seeing our Little Lord Fauntleroy high-school boys all grimy from forge shops, or greasy from care of an engine. We have found they can clean up, and enter a drawing-room just as well. It may take a special brand of mechanics' soap, but the grease is not like the blood on Lady Macbeth's hands—it can be washed off. We have even become reconciled to training mechanics who are to be mechanics, electricians who intend working with electricity, carpenters who long to build, and the like. In short, we are no longer ashamed of material usefulness.

All-Day Vocational Departments.—There are just three things necessary in order to establish in any high school a department which shall give just as reliable training to boys who wish to enter specific trades as does any trades school. One is a teacher whom workmen in his own line respect. The second is the cooperation of local tradesmen and employers so that the boys may be given opportunity to work, and later be given places among the workmen at just the stage of apprenticeship to which they have attained in their trade training. The third is boys who wish to do these things. You might think that the last should be the first essential but the others must frequently precede it, in order to give the boys a vision of possibilities. In general, both tradesmen and employers have a kindly feeling for boys, and for public schools. Their cooperation, therefore, is not hard to procure, provided the teacher is skilled both in technique and tact. The

writer can testify to one high school having five all-day vocational departments besides the agricultural department already mentioned—a school in machine-shop practise; one in electrical construction; one in auto construction and repairs; one in building trades and one in printing. These boys supplement their specific training with English, civics and mechanical drawing. Every line is entered with purpose of life training. The length of hours precludes any light intention. The machine-shop practise boys, for instance, work in double shifts of seven hours each. This, with their studies, makes a full program. There are several boys on the waiting list to enter the classes. The other courses are equally strenuous, and strangely enough, popular also.

Do we need to repeat again what is already trite—that these boys are vastly better off here than in shops which exist to turn out products, not to train producers? Do we need to argue for the wider vision they obtain? In the Ford plant in Detroit a man is set doing one little specific job which he can learn to do in a short time. But every eighteenth man is supposed to understand the whole, and to act in a somewhat supervisory capacity. These men are of course much better paid than the comparatively uneducated workmen, yet they are much harder to procure.

Lines Leading from Vocational Schools.—There are two lines open to the boys in these vocational courses, which courses are for two years' work only. One is to complete the high-school course in studies closely related and train further in technical colleges. The other is to go into the work at once, fitted,

after a shorter apprenticeship, to take advanced positions.

Managing Professions.—Right here it is worth while to speak of "the managing professions," which are not professions at all, but important industrial positions. One of these managers bears the same relation to his little world that the housewife does to the house. He may, or may not, assist in the manual work himself, but he must understand it in every detail; he must be able to counsel, plan, advise. He may not keep his own books, but he must know when it is rightly done. Many of our boys who know their life-work early are to enter such places. It is often a case of a son becoming the partner of his father. Many of the sons of men whose business is well established have taken it for granted since childhood that they would enter the same field. The father expects the boy to bring to the work a fresh grasp of the most recent development in the particular line, a good working knowledge of office practise, together with enough of book-learning to take a place among the gentlemen of culture in the community. Many of our most purposeful boys in the shops are sons of manufacturers; sons of owners of printing establishments; sons of men who own auto establishments; sons of dealers in electrical apparatus, of contractors, of men who own big farms. Nor is it to be counted against the sincerity with which a boy learns a trade that he becomes later a manager in it. Some time ago a pupil direct from a technical high school accepted a place in an interior hardwood company. His knowledge of mechanical drawing and of the finishing of various kinds of woods

soon made him an important member of the firm. He is now carrying on a business for himself in this line in Chicago. This story is repeated so often the tradesmen have frequently accused the schools of training not for the manual work but for the "managing professions." Whatever of fault in the schools may have been back of this accusation is being rapidly overcome by the serious vocational work now being developed.

Perhaps a bit of the fault lies in the industries in that they have so few trained men that those who come prepared are conspicuous. It used to be in the teaching professions that college men were so rare they were placed in supervisory positions. Now, every teacher is expected to have a sheepskin lying somewhere in moth-eaten glory.

Education for Routine Work.—But what will become of the necessary, but monotonous, piece of trade work, when all the boys are educated? To the writer that danger seems a trifle remote, but the answer is simple. If a man's work does not make him think, then he needs to be educated all the more to think for himself above the grind of machinery. Have you read the very interesting bit of character study which Booth Tarkington sets forth in *The Turmoil?* If you have, you remember the difference in the mind of Bibbs Sheridan when feeding a clipping machine before and after Love and Motive entered his life in the form of Mary Vertrees. Motive, thought, vision—the school plays the part of the giver of these to the boy who is to do routine work. Paul, the tent maker, could write his epistles because tent making was too monotonous to require his mind.

For all the medley of modern vocations, is it clear that the high school plays a part in concrete training? And why rather in high school than in separated schools? For just four reasons—to secure economy to the state; to give contrasting study for cultural effect; to allow a boy to change vocations when he sees he is a misfit, such change to be without loss of time and credits; to provide for that multitude whose occupations reach into too many lines to admit of classification. If we can succeed in overlapping enough, perhaps the thing Emerson meant will happen—"Beauty must come back to the useful arts and the distinction between the fine and useful arts be forgotten." We have been working for use *or* beauty; perhaps we may come to copy the workmanship of One who creates every least thing for use *and* beauty.

CHAPTER V

BY-PRODUCTS

"SHALL I tell him to mind his work, and say he's sent to school to make himself a good scholar? Well, but he isn't sent to school for that—at any rate, not for that mainly. I don't care a straw for Greek particles, or the digamma, no more does his mother. What is he sent to school for? Well, partly because he wanted so to go. If he'll only turn out a brave, helpful, truth-telling Englishman, and a gentleman, and a Christian, that's all I want."

I suppose that if the feeling of almost any parent of a high-school boy were analyzed, it would pretty much agree with the above words of Tom Brown's father. A brave, helpful, truth-telling patriot; a gentleman, a Christian—almost any of us would be satisfied with that, wouldn't we? As for the mothers of our country, I judge a very large part of them would be happy if they could know their boys would be the last named—Christians, in a full sense. They would risk that including all the rest.

American Tendency to Take Deepest Things for Granted.—It is sometimes said of us Americans that we are an exceedingly serious, even sad people, who are all the time making jokes to hide or to lighten our real feelings. Certain it is that if Mark Twain is the

typical American his friends think him to be, our humor is pretty close akin to earnest purpose. But, we would rather Earnestness wore a mask of Fun even though it doesn't at all deceive us as to who he is. We reverence Lincoln the more because he could tell a funny story while his heart was breaking. He seems braver to us. He *was* braver, wasn't he? We feel that the deep serious things of life should be above question. David Harum's approval of John Lennox as an applicant for bank cashier is a case in point—"He don't even say he'll do his best, like most fellers would. He seems to have took it for granted that I'll take it for granted, and that's what I like about it."

This element of reticence regarding most vital things crops out very noticeably in our educational system. Every one of us, down deep in the heart, cares more for the morals of the boy than for any other phase of his training, yet a stranger might examine most of our courses of study from start to finish and never find it out. So far as the formal teaching of religion is concerned, of course, there is the fear lest the state try to interfere with freedom of conscience. We have not forgotten the experience of our forefathers. But this does not account for the usual complete absence in the curriculum of any phase of the teaching of ethics. It is even hard for a book avowedly on citizenship to be accepted seriously. It's something either of a joke or of an insult to a native American to be told he should be loyal. *Of course* he will be loyal, why not? Our catalogues become expansive in their expositions of what is offered in literature, in art or in manual training, but they leave the reader to take quietly for

granted, training in fair play, honesty, courage, truthfulness, patriotism, unselfishness, reverence. We expect these to be the by-products of our factory.

Training in Morals Different from Training in Theory of Morals.—Now it would have been a cause of chagrin to shrewd David Harum if John Lennox had been lacking in those deeper traits of character which he left to be taken for granted. It would mean more than chagrin to the parents of our high-school boys, if our manual-arts schools were deficient in training in just those elements. Let no one, however, confuse a training in morals with a training in the theory of morals. This is often done by good people, but it is a grievous mistake. How frequently we hear parents excuse themselves from blame for a delinquent child by saying, "We have always told him what he should do!" As if being informed as to the right course were enough to form the character of any child! A boy can recite glibly on the evil effects of cigarettes, the while some half dozen are reposing in his vest pocket ready for use as soon as the recitation is over. Portia was an exception in some things but certainly not in her feeling, "I had rather teach twenty what were good to be done than to be one of the twenty to follow mine own teaching." It's boys who will each be "one of the twenty" that we are wanting. The race of Polonius is quite big enough—giver of beautiful advice, sneaking eavesdropper that he was! The idea that actual character formation is a thing apart, a course which can be separately taught and catalogued, is something on a par with the idea held by the carpenters in the old story. They were

building a homely structure and on being asked who the architect was, you remember they replied, "O it ain't got any architect yet. A man from Boston's comin' out an' put the architecture into it."

Character Training Like Strengthening the Heart. —It's a much harder thing to plan a whole building on beautiful lines than to add a little cupola. It's comparatively easy to train the hand or the foot, but to regulate the heart means the control of every organ of the body. Really, the analogy between a physical director trying to strengthen the heart and a teacher trying to form character is very close. The director has to give exercises and games, watching constantly the reaction on the heart. When he finds a thing which reacts properly, and seems to give strong pulsations without strain, he tries to keep that up until habit is formed. The heart strengthens very, very slowly. Right habits, long-continued, are necessary. It is folly to expect results when a boy merely knows what to do. Over and over again doing the thing in question until his very being takes it up and it becomes reflex—that constitutes training.

Action to Keep Pace with Thought and Feeling. —Every school worth the name has caught a vision of some truth. The thing the manual-arts schools know is that action ought to keep pace with thought and feeling. Perhaps there has never been a greater sentence description of a normal character than that employed to describe a woman of old—"Dorcas was full of good works *which she did.*" The garments which they mournfully handled after her death were her plans put into execution. It is said that immediately

prior to the French Revolution, women of the nobility could attend a play in which beggars featured, weep from pity of their ills, then go out to the street past beggars of similar type, without offering to help. They had been removed from doing so long, in artificial luxury, that action did not follow their thought and feeling. This alone would have made a revolution inevitable. The world does not need the full number of years of such folk, while the Dorcases are worth bringing back for a second lifetime.

An eminent divine has said, "The thoughts of God are acts," by which I suppose he means that, in the perfect being, all good impulses are put into execution. Darkly against such a conception looms the character of Hamlet. According to every teaching he has had, he knows he should avenge his father's death. He believes the king is the guilty man; he proves it; still he does not act. He only reasons, intends. When we see that he knows perfectly but does not do, we need no more to tell us there has to be a tragedy. There could be few more severe arraignments of our systems of education than to say Hamlet is a typical scholar, taught to reason, to doubt, to know, but not to act.

Greatest Claim of Manual-Arts Schools.—Perhaps the greatest distinctive claim our manual-arts schools can make toward right training is that by the practise of four years they teach a boy to put into concrete execution a considerable number of the things which he has conceived and planned. The effects of this kind of training are surprisingly apparent. The boys expect to do something when they see the need,

The principal of such a school can turn over to his older boys a large proportion of his own problems and they will be solved satisfactorily. Is there a need of office furniture? Do the school premises need decoration? Is there a carelessness of deportment at the athletic games? Is there a need of better music? Are the yells a bit questionable in wording? Is the office clerk overrun with work? Are there pupils who are failing in their studies? Is there a room lax in deportment? I wish I could give you a conception of the varied number of real problems which the boys of our large high schools solve. The following examples serve to illustrate.

Examples of Problems Solved by Boys.—Silverware was disappearing from a lunch room, not from ordinary theft but as a result of a souvenir craze. The boys instituted such an agitation against it as not only broke the custom but caused the return of the pieces already taken. Some freshmen boys were failing in their studies. The fact was reported to an organization of senior boys. They immediately inaugurated a system of private tutoring free of charge with remarkable results to both sides. A school building was disfigured by overzealous class men secretly painting the class numbers. The boys of their own class without any compulsion searched them out, severely censured them as class members, caused them to pay for righting the building and by force of public opinion in the school, prevented a repetition of such an act by any class. A grand-stand was needed on school grounds, the boys made it; programs were required, the boys printed them; a school clock and electric bell

system was out of order, the boys righted it; a moving-picture apparatus was given to a school, the boys installed it; new lathes were needed, the boys made them; a school building was growing dilapidated, the boys repaired it; a school orchard was dying out, the boys studied the diseases of the trees, pruned and sprayed them; afterward they gathered the crop, marketed it, the money being part of the assets of the school. It is not that the cooperation of boys with a school is any new thing. But it is a new development for public high schools to offer lines of activity so varied that every boy can see a tangible way to put into execution a constructive plan of his own. Moreover when a boy is under training in doing useful things for from two to four hours a day every school day for four years, seeing something useful to do and doing it become not episodes in his life but habit. Occasionally to do something constructive is one thing, habitually to do it is quite another thing. It is the latter only which can be depended on to develop character.

Classics Also Concerned.—Nor is the habit of doing confined to the manual-arts side of the school. A semester's work in language or history, if required, has no special significance so far as the execution of one's own plans is concerned. But with the elective system every study becomes an object of choice and its completion, in a measure, the carrying out of one's own plans. Initiative and execution are the natural order of the day. The vitalizing effect on boys who lean to classics is almost as marked as on those of mechanical bent.

Intimate Relation with Teachers.—All this choosing, all these activities, mean constant counseling with the teachers. The intimate relation of pupils and teachers is one of the main vital elements in character formation. Had you thought of it, there is no occasion to counsel with a teacher when the course of study is fixed? The natural thing is to regard a teacher as the exponent of a study and if it is disagreeable, an otherwise happy relation becomes strained. But, where the power of choice is free, a boy's teachers are in the lines he has chosen, so why should he oppose them? Moreover the faculty contains scholars, artists, musicians, mechanics, draftsmen, chemists and artisans. It is so much more likely that a boy will find a congenial spirit in such a group than in a group of scholars only. Intimate friendships, prized by both sides, spring up naturally and easily. This means real training, a rooting in the boy's character of whatever is strongest in the teacher.

Relation to the Home.—It has already been mentioned that the vocational counseling with boys reaches out to the home. This is not to be overlooked in the making of a boy. It is not only that the boy learns; the parents learn, too, and take a more concrete, sympathetic interest. A school has to educate older people, as well as young. Over and again a home not given to encouraging education is won by a little thing which a boy makes and contributes to its daily convenience. The thing the boy is doing at school seems so much more comprehensible to a hard-working father and mother if they can see a table or a lamp he has made. It may be foolish, but it's true. The boy is not so apt,

either, to feel above a parent ill versed in books, if he is daily reminded that simple usefulness is worth striving for. It's a pitiful thing for a boy to be educated away from the world where his folk live.

The Community Touch.—But school and home are not enough for a boy in his teens. He longs to know the world. He dreams of its bigness. He wants to hear the buzzing of its wheels. The very fact that a vocational school has to reach out to the alluring activities of a city makes it satisfying. Any building-trades school, for instance, has to have back of it the local builders of the place. This "get-together" movement of school and community means much to the teacher, much to the artisans, but most to the boy. Life, *his* life, is touching the world, that world of his dreams, where skyscrapers are built and railroads span continents. His own city becomes to him a school, its activities, not to be idly dreamed about nor longed for, but to be learned. To the mechanical boy this means procuring a place later; the contact with men he needs to know. But perhaps to the dreaming boy the deepest service to character is rendered. It is a tragic thing for a boy who is going to have to earn a living to dream and dream and never know the world until one day he wakes up to call it a hard place, no place for an idealist to live. If that same boy can have a touch with the earth added to his dreaming in his teens, he will not see fewer visions—he will see them longer. It was a pathetic thing when Bibbs Sheridan, who was a real idealist, was thrown into the industrial life of a factory. He saw in it not one thing which connected with his mind world of beauty and writing.

"I've been to see an artist who paints the smoke," Mary Vertreer tells him. "He just paints what's around him and it's beautiful. . . . He sees the sky through it somehow. He does the ugly roofs of cheap houses through a haze of smoke, and he does smoky sunsets and smoky sunrises . . . and he has others with the broken sky line of down-town all misted with the smoke and with puffs and jets of vapor that have colors like an orchard in mid-April."

"You're showing me the city," said Bibbs, "I didn't know what was in it at all."

The world needs these dreamers when they have learned to mix dreams and reality so that they can see the sky through the curls of smoke. If the doing and dreaming have been practised together from choice, the boy will go on seeing visions when he has to do from necessity. The community touch, then, serves all our boys.

Social Life.—Foolish as it may seem to some of their elders, boys in their teens will think of girls too, and the inter-relation of the two sexes is no fit subject for jest. It is mixed up with the deepest of the character elements. It is a part of vital life. Now, when boys and girls are entirely separated in school, it means that their inter-relations are either supervised by the home, which is quite right, or are not supervised at all, which is very common. When they meet in every class, it is perhaps not so easy for a certain idealism to be maintained. Certainly the gallantry of Scott's novels is not so readily fostered. But, when, by wide range of studies, boys are naturally alone in their heavier occupations and are with girls in some

of their classical work, in auditorium exercises, in their class organizations, in part of the literary organizations, in some of the musical and art activities—really, it seems to us a happy medium is reached. This has been alluded to before, but it deserves second mention here. Boys need to be acquainted with girls. They will be, of one kind or another. Many a son of good parents has but little opportunity outside of a school to meet the girls he ought to know. The social life of a large high school is just as much a part of the character-forming training as is any other phase. The main part of the acquaintance naturally comes through classes and after-school organizations. In the manual-arts schools with whose social activities the writer happens to be most familiar, the class, school and club functions are afternoon affairs; the decorations are home-made but often quite effective, having their origin in the art department; the simple dances are those taught boys and girls in their separate gymnasium classes; the special features of entertainment are worked out by the pupils in conjunction with some enthusiastic teachers who are gifted with social leadership. The very fact that boys and girls meet in this way other boys and girls with whom their home life would not bring them, means a breadth of wholesome acquaintance, a knowledge of people "not in our set." The affairs being in the daytime, there is no need of escorts for girls, no occasion for "coupling off." It is a simple, natural social acquaintance which may, and often does, ripen into something more in later years. It is, however, a matter of common observation that boys and girls who have simple natural asso-

ciations together are not so apt to seek questionable places nor to have too early love affairs as are those boys and girls who are restrained from normal association.

Kinship of Doers.—The children of a cosmopolitan high school surely ought to be able to understand the prologue to Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales.* It was spring-time, the poet tells us, and, bent on a common journey, there were gathered together in one company knight and yeoman, nun and prioress, priest, merchant, squire, clerk, country gentleman, cook, haberdasher, carpenter, shipman, doctor, housewife, pastor, plowman, lawyer and folk of other walks. Spring-time and human life of every kind—these are enough for a poem; they are none too much for a school. Has it ever occurred to you what it means to a boy to live in a miniature world like that for four years? Well enough did Chaucer know that the tales told by men in other occupations are filled with interest. It is ideal for friendships to leap over all boundaries of occupation. There is a kinship between doers the world over. The feelings of an inventor who has just perfected a great machine, a musician who has crystallized his feeling in sound, and of a poet who has caught his fancy in words are not so far apart. There is something in the pursuit of every subject over and above technique. There is a joy of conception, a perseverance in execution, a nerve strain, a rapture of accomplishment. That's why there can be such real companionship between people whose occupations differ so widely. You wish a boy to have a sympathetic insight into many lives? Then let him do his level best in one

line himself, and be friends with doers in other fields. Friendships do not lack much of forming the best part of the education of a boy in his teens.

An "Introducer."—Do you see in this any training for life in a democracy? Right beside the boy who is taking auto construction because he wishes to understand his father's Packard touring car, works a boy who will run a Packard truck instead. Along with the boy who intends to make printing his trade, studies the boy who will inherit his father's printing establishment. David Grayson presents a bit of sane philosophy when he says that the title he covets for himself is that of "Introducer." The occasion for saying this, is that there is a great strike in progress in a city which he visits. The suffering promises to be intense. Each side looks on the other as unreasoning and, in a sense, abnormal. Mr. Grayson has happened to meet the main employer, has been entertained in the home, knows how beautiful and charming both he and his wife are, how lovable. He has also met the strike leader, and knows his sterling, honesty, his keen mind, his downright worth. He conceived that the great strike would end if only these two men could meet naturally. He audaciously arranges the friendly interview, only to have each party separately decline later for reasons of policy. I fancy Mr. Grayson found them too late in life. They're easily introduced in their teens. After all, perhaps that's just what the manual-arts high schools are, "Introducers," making the graces of each group of workers apparent to those who toil in other fields.

The Church School

By Eric Parson

The Church School

CHAPTER I

HISTORY

IN AMERICAN education the term "church school" has been applied to a definite type of secondary school which has grown up under the influence of the Episcopal Church. During the latter half of the nineteenth century, institutions of this type, with the same aims and ideals, have sprung up with such rapidity that already we have come to recognize a prominent type of school, distinguishable from the earlier parochial schools, the high school, the academy and the tutoring school. Like the parochial school, the church school has been the outgrowth of a single religious denomination, and religious instruction has played an important part in its educational scheme. Unlike the parochial school, it has, from the beginning, been a college preparatory school, and its pupils in the majority of cases have looked forward to courses at the university.

Rapid Growth of This Type.—The growth of the church school has been rapid and consistent. Each year sees new institutions of this type established, and in New England, where the development has been most

marked, they have been an important "feeder" to the university. Graduates from Groton, Pomfret, Salisbury, St. George's, St. Mark's and St. Paul's are taking degrees each year at the important universities and colleges of the East. Furthermore, the number of schools has increased steadily since 1855, when the state of New Hampshire passed an act to incorporate St. Paul's School. At least fifteen institutions were represented at the last meeting of the bi-yearly conference of church schools.

Its Origin.—The history of this type of institution is the history of a philosophy of education which, previous to the church school, was held by the founders of the Catholic parochial school. The Roman Catholics, since the founding of the so-called Episcopal or Cathedral schools in the Middle Ages, have believed that in combining religion and education the school best serves the community, and in the seventeenth century in France the Jesuits and the Jansenists scarcely distinguished between church and school. For the most part, however, there is little in common between the older parochial school and the American church school. Both assert, it is true, that education should be at once secular and religious, that education for life must embody religion if boys are to be religious; yet the future activities of the pupils who attend these two types of schools, the character of the instruction, both secular and religious, the content of the curriculum and the activities of the pupils outside of the class room are so fundamentally different that one recognizes two entirely distinct types. The American church school is not, therefore, an outgrowth of the Catholic paro-

chial school; its origin is purely American, and its development comparatively recent.

The Founding of the Round Hill School.—Early in the nineteenth century, when secondary school education in the United States was in its infancy, one man was impressed by the value of basing educational practise upon the theory that education and religion should not be things apart in the lives of schoolboys. This man, Mr. J. G. Cogswell, founded the Round Hill School at Northampton, Massachusetts, in 1823, and for ten years conducted it with success. At that time there were, in New England, few private schools which aimed to give both religious and secular instruction. For this reason, and because of the beautiful surroundings of Round Hill and the simplicity of the life, boys came from as far as Boston to attend the school. One of these was George Cheyne Shattuck, who, previous to his coming to Round Hill, had been a pupil at the Boston Latin School.

Activities at the Round Hill School.—When this boy went to Northampton in 1823 he found a school which, though it had been established but three years, had an excellent reputation among the private secondary institutions of New England. He found, moreover, a school greatly to his liking; the open fields, the hills and woods, the freedom of the country after city streets, the outdoor life during recreation hours—these things struck his fancy and made him at once attached to the place. The life of the boys, too, pleased him; for the relationship between master and boy was one of harmony and good will. An early letter tells us something of the life at Round Hill. "Our number is

twenty-five, of which fifteen are with us altogether, and ten scholars from the village. We rise at six and meet soon after for prayers, study till eight, at which time we breakfast, then play till nine; from nine till twelve study, dine at half past twelve, play till two; from two till five study, sup at half past five, play till seven, and then assemble for the evening occupation, which thus far has been reading only. . . . A little before nine (the boys) are dismissed and go to bed."

Quality of Instruction.—The prospectus of the school for 1823 says that "the aim of the school is to preserve the health and improve the moral and mental powers of the scholars. We must, on receiving the charge of them, be to them as parents. The methods of discipline," the prospectus goes on to say, "must be parental. There is no difference between severity and strictness. The one may be gained by the frequent use of punishments, while the other is best secured by gentleness and example. The relation of the pupil and the tutor is that of the weak to the strong, of him who needs instruction and defense to him who is able to impart them. Keeping this principle in mind, we shall endeavor to govern by persuasion and persevering kindness."

Objects of Instruction.—The prospectus states, furthermore, that the first and most necessary objects of instruction are "to read, to write, and to speak English with correctness, and, if possible, with elegance." The great masters of prose and verse furnished models for the scholars. "However much attention may be claimed by other studies, we must always bear in mind

that nothing can supply the want of a thorough knowledge of our mother tongue." The study of the Greek and Latin classics was second in importance, since "they form the basis of learning and taste, both for their antiquity and their intrinsic excellence." So much is known about the curriculum, which in many respects resembles the curriculum of the church school of to-day.

Emphasis Upon Outdoor Activities.—There were many physical activities in which master and boys participated together. Outdoor games—running, climbing and tramping—furnished the exercise which the head master required of each boy. "Neither cold nor rain nor snow keeps them indoors at hours assigned for play," one early letter says; and throughout these hours of play the master supervised and took an active part in the recreational activities of the pupils. Schools which are the descendants of this pioneer in education have constantly emphasized the importance of physical activities.

Moral Instruction.—Though the Round Hill School was not, strictly speaking, a church school, it laid much stress upon moral teaching and religious instruction. The school prospectus says:

"As the fear of God is the most sacred principle of action, there is none which should be developed with more care. Each day will begin and end with devotional exercises. The Lord's day must be sacredly observed, and the exercises of public worship constantly attended."

The School's Head Master.—We are told that the failure of the school after ten years was due to inade-

quate financial support rather than to the principle upon which the founder based his educational practises, or to the personality of Mr. Cogswell. A pupil of the school, writing many years after the school closed, said: "All Round Hillers, as they love to call themselves, agree in attributing to the singular combination of admirable qualities in the character of Mr. Cogswell (the school's) prosperity and success. He was a man who united . . . the qualities of the man of study and of action. So completely, without attempting in any manner but by the direct display of his own character, did he win the respect and confidence of all his many scholars (that) not war, not distance, not time, could ever break the bond which bound them to each other."

St. Paul's.—When Mr. Shattuck was looking for a school for his children, some years after the Round Hill School had closed, he conceived the idea of establishing an institution similar to the Round Hill School at his own home—a beautiful spot, ideally situated for his purpose. The site, a plot of fifty-five acres on the road from Concord to Dunbarton, New Hampshire, was situated in a fertile valley with imposing hills on every hand and a large river near by. "Green fields and trees, streams and ponds, beautiful scenery, flowers and minerals are educators," writes Mr. Shattuck; and again: "Physical and moral culture can best be carried on where boys live with, and are constantly under the supervision of the teachers, and in the country. The English public schools of renown, such as Eaton, Rugby, Harrow, Winchester, and others, with their extensive playgrounds, show the advantage of

such a situation." After lands and buildings had been provided for the foundation of a school modeled after the Round Hill School at Northampton, the first important step was the selection of trustees. The bishop of the diocese, the rector of St. Paul's Church, Concord, the judge of the United States district court in New Hampshire, the chief justice of Vermont, a judge from Connecticut, and four gentlemen from Boston were the first trustees of St. Paul's School. We are told that the task for the trustees was a big one; there was no endowment, and only seven boys were ready to enter the school. Much depended upon the choice of the man who was to act as the head master and rector. The trustees apparently made a wise choice in selecting the Reverend Henry A. Coit, a clergyman who had been trained at St. Paul's, College Point, and at St. James, Maryland. At the outset, Doctor Coit was told by the trustees: "You have possession of the land and buildings, but we can not promise you a salary, and you must derive your support from the fees of the scholars." Thus in April, 1856, the first term began.

The Personality of Doctor Coit.—As the success of the Round Hill School, during its ten years of prosperity, was due in large measure to the personality of Mr. Cogswell, so at St. Paul's the success of the school in its early days was due to the individuality of its first head master. We are told by a graduate of the school* that Doctor Coit was a man who observed everything, "especially the individualities of the boys, about whom he acquired a preternatural astuteness. He lived

* *The Influence of Schools,* John Jay Chapman.

within the solitude which a great purpose and constant prayer sometimes cast about a man." And again: "St. Paul's was not the creature of any age. It was the child of one man, who planted his house upon a hill." Throughout the history of the church school we find that the individuality of one man has been, to a large extent, responsible for a school's success.

The Church School and the High School.—During the early history of St. Paul's the endowed private schools throughout the country suffered severe losses because of the rise of the free high school. The effect of the growth of the high school was felt greatest in the academy, which was quite unable to withstand the losses occasioned by the growth of this new type. Few academies survived to become important factors in education, for the content of secondary school instruction, with the growth of the high school, became broadened and enriched, and the quality of its teaching was, in the main, superior to that of the academy. Furthermore, the economic groups to which the academy and the high school appealed were identical. For these reasons the development of the academy ceased when the free high school came into being. The church school, however, was little affected by the rise of the high school. St. Mark's, founded at Southboro, Massachusetts, in 1865 by Mr. Joseph Burnett, and Groton School, founded in 1884 by Reverend Endicott Peabody at Groton, Massachusetts, developed rapidly into institutions of importance among the preparatory schools of New England. Both Groton and St. Mark's, like their predecessor, St. Paul's, and like the many church schools which have subsequently come into existence,

make their appeal to a social group which the high school does not reach.

Causes for Development of the Church School; (1) Its Demand for Union of Secular and Religious Education.—Within the church school the rapid development has been accounted for by a demand for the union of secular and religious education. In the early history of American schools, children were taught by the clergyman of the community, because it was more economical to have them so taught and because the clergyman, more than any one else in the community, was best suited to teach. There was, furthermore, the firm belief that religious instruction was essential to education—that education and religion are one. As far back as the Protestant Reformation the consensus of public opinion was that religion should be the basis of elementary vernacular education, and throughout the history of English and American schools there has been a persistent though not general demand for private institutions which emphasize religious teaching and religious worship. The early church school was successful because of this demand.

(2) Success as a College Preparatory School.—There are, however, other causes for the development of this type of school, and not the least of these is the success which it has had as a college preparatory school.* Boys enter Harvard, Yale and Princeton

* At Harvard during the past year thirty-seven per cent. of those who entered from Groton are placed on the honor list for the quality of work done on entrance examination; for the same year twenty-five per cent. of the undergraduates entering from St. Mark's are on the honor list. This type of school has few failures in college entrance tests.

without difficulty from church schools. The thoroughness of the drill throughout a course of six years and the quality of a curriculum which permits of concentration upon a comparatively limited field of study are in a large measure responsible for this success. The knowledge that the training at church schools is secure preparation for college has been an important cause for the rise of this type in America.

(3) Social Advantages.—There is another cause of this development. Life at the university is a life of broad social intercourse, and participation in non-scholastic activities has become important in the social life of the undergraduate. The boy who spends six years at a school from which each year a large majority of graduates pass to the university and into which flow university traditions is well prepared to enter into undergraduate activities. Realizing this, parents who can afford the tuition are desirous of having their sons enter schools of this type; and boys desire to avail themselves of the advantages which the graduates of church schools possess as undergraduates in the university. For these reasons the growth of this type of school has been both rapid and sure.

CHAPTER II

AIMS

THE brief history of the church school given in the preceding chapter has been, as the reader observes, a history of the institution, not a history of the educational ideals of the school. This type of institution has had a formal or static conception of the nature of education, and the development of theory has been comparatively unimportant; Pestalozzi, Herbart, Spencer, Huxley, have had little place in the church school's history. The early educators who created this type of institution thought (1) that intellectual development best comes by the application of formal discipline, i. e., that studies are to be chosen and taught with the aim of exercising faculties and without regard to their practical usefulness; (2) that the pupils' complete moral development can best be achieved through the influence of the Episcopal Church; and (3) that the maximum of physical development is to be gained by assigning definite hours for enforced exercise.

General Aims of the Church School.—Now the church school of to-day believes in the theories upon which the early school was founded, and the moral, physical and intellectual training which a boy gets is determined by applying the doctrine of formal dis-

cipline to all school activities. The educators who have been instrumental in developing this type have aimed to regulate activities in such a way that the life of the individual, both in and beyond the school, will be a life of service. "The founder," says one deed of gift, "is desirous of endowing a school of the highest class for boys, in which they may obtain an education which *shall fit them for college or business,* including thorough intellectual training in the various branches of learning; gymnastics and manly exercises adapted to preserve health and strengthen the physical condition; such esthetic culture and accomplishments as shall tend to refine the manners and elevate the taste, together with moral and religious instruction." The church school, it will be seen, aimed in its early history "to fit boys for college or for business." At the present time this type of school does not hope to prepare boys in such a way that they may enter business at the end of their school course. Rather it aims (1) to prepare boys for college and (2) to create habits which will function in the world beyond the university.

Emphasis upon Preparation for College.—The early history of secondary-school education accounts for the emphasis still laid upon preparation for college in all types of secondary schools. The early grammar schools of England, the Boston Latin School (founded in 1635) and the Roxbury Latin School (founded in 1645), were essentially classical institutions, and as such they were college or university preparatory schools. Thus when we hear that in 1647 the Colony of Massachusetts Bay decreed that every

town of over one hundred householders should "set up a grammar school, the master thereof being able to instruct youth as far as they may be fitted for the university," we appreciate the influence of the university upon secondary-school education at that early date. This influence reaches the church school of today to a greater extent than it reaches the high school and the academy, for the church school sends to the university and the college nearly one hundred per cent. of its graduates, whereas the high school sends (to put the figure high) twenty per cent.

Influence of the University.—Just as the church school imposes upon the elementary schools which act as its "feeders" demands which affect the curriculum of the elementary schools, so the university restricts the curricula of the church school. The influence of university entrance requirements, which, according to a prominent educator, has caused the high school to fail,* is constantly felt in the type under discussion, which has aimed primarily to be a university preparatory school. The prospectus of one important institution says that the "course of study is arranged with the purpose of giving a thorough education and a preparation for admission to the universities, colleges, and scientific schools of the country;" another says that "the full course of instruction is designed to cover six years, and to prepare for admission to the freshman class in university or college." The boys attending church schools expect to enter the university, and the reputation of the school to some extent

* *New Demands in Education,* Chapter XIII, J. P. Munroe.

rests upon the success of their entrance examinations. Not merely the curricula but methods of instruction are to a large extent determined by the university, and standards which the latter sets very often determine the important educational practises of the school. This pressure upon the church school has caused it to fail in completely solving the problem of secondary-school education. The complex problems of adolescent training are many; individual differences are apparent in all class rooms, and the needs of one individual are not the needs of his neighbor. Yet this type of school places all adolescents into the same educational mold and turns out individuals with identical equipment and like habits of thought. In thus becoming a "fitting school" for the university, it has become, to use one educator's words, a mere "tail of the university kite." One gathers from this that the church school is face to face with conditions which are still influencing all types of secondary schools. Thus one writer, who sees ruin to the high school if the university continues its unwise demands upon secondary education, says that "the college entrance examination is an incubus which stunts the lives and limits the careers of hundreds of thousands of children, and which keeps teachers at educational stone-breaking when they ought to be, and when so many of them would like to be, molding, and expanding, and illuminating human lives."

The Church School and Religion.—Now the church school has aims which are not associated with college entrance and which, in the main, distinguish this type from the high school, the academy and other

important classes of American secondary schools. We have seen that at Round Hill religious worship was an important item in the program of the school; that at St. Paul's, at Groton and at St. Mark's religious instruction, from the beginning, has been linked with secular instruction. At the opening of each school year the pupils are told that the center of their life is to be the chapel, from which will radiate the teachings of Christianity. The founder of church schools in this country, Doctor George Cheyne Shattuck, writes: "Religious teaching and training for beings such as we are is all important. The things of this world are engrossing; but boys ought to be trained not only for this life, but so as to enter into and enjoy eternal and unseen realities. The life of this world is short and uncertain. To live well here in the fear and love of God and with love to our fellow men is not easy, and teachers and instructors who have learned and practised the arts of so living and passing through this world as not to lose the things eternal are essential to the success of boarding-schools." That religious teaching can not enter into the larger public schools of our country while there are scholars of a great diversity of nationalities and religions, is unfortunately true. In the city schools, because of the mingling of races and religions, it would be unwise to teach the doctrine of an established religion. And yet in keeping religion apart from education the school is keeping religion away from life. The dualism of religion and education has arisen in the minds of the pupils because the public school, in its desire to offend none, has banished religion from education. The church school,

however, has taken a positive stand; it asserts that religion and education are one, and that the deepest human experiences are religious experiences. Thus one prospectus says: "Religious instruction and influences are positive and continuous throughout the school course, and are in accord with the doctrine and discipline of the Episcopal Church;"* and another that "It is a school of the Episcopal Church, and its order and management are in conformity with the principles and spirit of the church."† "Can we not establish the habit of worship," says one head master, "and insure the continuance of the habit throughout the life of the man?"

Habit and Discipline.—The church school aims to create right habits through the practise of the doctrine of formal discipline. "The end aimed at in any rational scheme of education," says one educator, "is the formation of good character both mental and moral, with healthy bodies; and character is based on habits. The studies pursued, the methods of teaching, the customs and regulations adopted, are chiefly valuable in so far as they tend to produce certain habits. It is quite true that Cæsar's Commentaries, the Æneid, the Iliad, Anabasis, are just works of literature; that the processes of elementary algebra and the truths of geometry are necessary for the prosecution of certain scientific studies. But their real value in the discipline of the boy's mind does not depend simply upon intrinsic merit. The reason why the classics are so largely employed in education is because they are in-

* *St. George's Catalogue.*
† *St. Mark's Catalogue.*

struments which when handled by competent instructors have power to form such habits as attention, intelligent observation, and clear expression of thought. They have been found most useful in enlarging a boy's vocabulary, in cultivating his memory, in giving exercise to his judgment and other faculties, and in forming a taste for literature. A large part of what a boy learns at school quickly fades from his recollection and is apparently entirely useless to him in after life. But the mental habits which he acquires through the use of his faculties, in learning and reciting his lessons, prove of the highest and most enduring value if he is taught in the right way. Good teaching, therefore, is teaching which forms and cultivates good mental habits."* I quote this at length because it is a very concise statement of the doctrine of formal discipline and the school's conception of the merits of the classical tradition. It will not be necessary at this point to trace the history of the classical tradition in the institutions of England and America. Winchester, the first public school in England, believed that the confines of education were not broad enough to include science, economics, and a study of human relationships. The world of men and of the things which we see and experience is not the world to master; Latin syntax is more important because of its disciplinary effect; and discipline is at the foundation of education.

The Classical Tradition.—The theory still held today, that because a boy can gain a mastery over a dead language he stands an excellent chance of gaining a

* *History of St. Paul's School.*

mastery over every-day circumstances, was firmly believed in the early days of secondary-school education. To-day this type of school has a firm faith in the theory, and one of its aims is to give each boy a thorough schooling in traditional studies. "He will become a better physician," says one head master, "if he has had this rigid classical training; time enough later, when he is in college, to let him follow natural inclination." Thus the church school has possessed the classical ideal. Boys have gone out of our halls well equipped for the undergraduate collegiate course, and we have felt that some of our aims have been realized when the results of their entrance examinations are returned to us.

The Church School's Faith in Formal Discipline. —The doctrine of formal discipline, or the "doctrine of the application of mental power, however gained, to any department of human activity"* has had an important place in the history of education. It was practised by the early schoolmen; it has been long embodied in the ideals of the classical education of English schools and universities. The district schools of America still practise it to a large extent; the small college which discourages elective studies is firm in the belief that the theory is workable; and the church school, which says that the study of Latin, Greek, mathematics and English grammar will develop qualities which are of service in all human activities, asserts that the doctrine is valid. A common argument of those who defend formal discipline is as follows:

* Baldwin's *Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology*—Formal Culture—De Garmo.

The discipline which Latin, Greek, arithmetic and English grammar demand will develop perseverance, memory, quickness of perception, judgment and like qualities; and since these qualities are essential to success in business, medicine and law, then the study of Latin, Greek, arithmetic and English grammar will tend to make capable business men, capable lawyers, and capable physicians. Another argument runs thus: "A" is an excellent physician; before going to the medical school he had an education based upon the theory of formal discipline; therefore, all men entering the profession should have a classical education. The first argument rests upon a belief in what psychologists call a "generalized habit"—a habit which is a response to a number of different stimuli. For example, a boy after long practise may acquire the specific habit of producing neat English papers. The doctrine of formal discipline assumes that if this habit is once thoroughly established, it will function equally well in history and drawing; that functioning successfully here, it can not fail to insure neatness of person and attire; and that the habit of neatness thus ingrained upon the pupil will surely be carried over into maturer years. The extent to which the doctrine has been used in this type of institution will be made apparent when in the succeeding chapter the discussion of church-school curricula arises. The objection commonly made to the doctrine of formal discipline is that it rests upon what psychologists to-day term a "faculty psychology." Supplanting this older belief is the so-called "functional psychology," which asserts that the mind is developed only through adjustment to given

situations.* In schools of this type, success has come through the practise of formal discipline. The success, however, has been achieved because it is measured in terms of the requirements of colleges and universities, and these requirements in the main lay peculiar emphasis upon the mastering of fact rather than the mastering of a highly approved method of study. The success of formal discipline has made firm the belief that the study of traditional subjects is the best preparation for life beyond the school.

Limited Interest in Pedagogical Theory Among Teachers.—There have been, however, dissenters from this belief in formal discipline. In some schools, teachers have become interested in recent progressive tendencies in education, and the ideals of individual masters in regard to the teaching process have become modified either through the direct influence of such a teacher as Walther at Frankfort, or through an awakened interest in recent educational literature. This spirit, however, has not been universal, and the science of pedagogy is still regarded by the majority of masters in church schools as a science of doubtful value.

Traditional and Obsolete Theories Have Determined the School's Aims.—It is apparent from what has been said that tradition has played an important part in determining the nature of the church school's theory of education; the classical tradition within the school, and a tradition, still persisting within the university, that those subjects which have been taught in schools of this type are the proper content of the

* For a fuller account of formal discipline see Bagley's *Educative Process.*

preparatory-school curriculum. The persistence of this latter belief has forced the school to aim at examinable results, to place a premium upon the acquisition of facts which in the process of mastering are supposed to be of use because of their disciplinary value, and which, after they have been mastered, are of use as a vehicle to higher education. Here, in brief, is the educational ideal of this type of institution.

Physical Training a Part of Education.—The school has always believed that success in education is, to a large extent, dependent upon physical health, and from the beginning has aimed to preserve health and to eliminate all possibility of disease. With this type of school, physical training is primarily a part of education, and a careful supervision is kept of the welfare of each individual. Nor does the school assume that each boy will tend toward an average of physical health; the school is constantly inquiring into the means of keeping the condition of each boy up to a standard higher than the average. Departments of physical training, which supervise the boy's activities, aim to secure, through organized and unorganized games, the habit of physical exercise, and through the acquisition of this habit, the development of bodily poise and strength. Thus, in assuming the responsibility for the physical welfare of the adolescent, the school has aimed to keep broad the field of education; it has asserted that the boundaries of education are not limited by the walls of the class room.

School and Home.—Many parents and not a few educators are of the opinion that education should be confined wholly to the class room—that because a boy

attends his classes from nine until three he stands in a fair way of becoming educated, though during the remainder of the day he is left to the whims and fancies of his child mind. In aiming to educate the boy, this type of school has aimed to control all of his activities, to subject the moral, the physical and the intellectual being to the teaching process. In order to bring the individual under the influence of all of the fundamental processes of education the church school brings to bear upon him the influences of church, of home and of school, and the government of the school has been from the beginning the government of a well-ordered Christian home. The boy attending a school of this type realizes that the school community is a home community, held together, from the youngest first former to the oldest teacher, by the force of its head master. A graduate of St. Paul's, writing about the spirit in American school life, says of the community to which he as a boy belonged: "The school was, at first, a mere extension of his (the rector's) family circle and of himself. Persons became attached to this family circle one by one; and whether they were boys or masters or servants, they thus one by one became members of a sort of invisible and visible church or brotherhood—a society of the sanctuary. . . . The whole system . . . was really no system at all, but only the unconscious working out of one man's nature in the formation of a school community. . . ."

CHAPTER III

ACTIVITIES

IT is apparent from what has been said in the preceding chapter that the church school aims to regulate all of the pupil's religious, intellectual and physical activities, and through such regulation to establish desirable abiding habits. As long as the attendance at the school remained small it was possible for the head master and his associates to exercise a very personal influence over all pupils, to understand each individual's disposition, and to watch over the training and development of character with as much interest and vigilance as parents exercise in a well-ordered home. In some cases the school has weakened in this guiding watchful interest, because it has grown too large for a minute personal supervision of each individual. There is, however, little difference in the quality of the activities in the several church schools; the activities discussed in this chapter though they may deviate to some extent from those of individual schools are nevertheless true for the type.

Religious Services.—During the six years of school life the boy lives constantly in a religious environment. Short services are held in the chapel each day before the classes begin, and from these services no boy is excused. They consist usually of a hymn, the re-

sponsive reading of a psalm and the reading by the head master of three or four suitable collects from the *Episcopal Prayer Book*. Each boy, whatever his religious denomination, is expected to enter into these services with enthusiasm. He soon comes to know the prayers; the hymns and psalms become familiar to him; and soon this morning devotional exercise is as much a part of his life as the activities of the class room. On Sunday there are usually two services—in some cases three; and these, too, are obligatory. The Sunday morning service, which usually comes at eleven, consists of the Episcopal morning service and a sermon by the rector or a visiting clergyman. Evening prayer, which comes shortly after tea — usually at seven-fifteen—consists of the evening service of the *Prayer Book*. "Every pains is taken to have the services bright and hearty, and not too long. The ritual in use is simple, but it is meant to be reverent and dignified—to edify the congregation and not to furnish a spectacle."* In addition to these services, brief prayers come at the end of school every evening except Sunday.

Religious Instruction.—Religious instruction, or sacred study, in schools of this type is compulsory and is a part of the regular curriculum. A typical course in sacred study for the six years is as follows:†

First form, Heroes of Israel; second form, Life of Christ; third form, Life of Paul; fourth form, Old Testament History; fifth form, Life of Christ (advanced); sixth form, Christian Ethics.

* *Memorials of St. Paul's School.*
† This course is given at Groton.

Throughout each year, portions of the New Testament, hymns, collects and psalms are memorized. The studies are designed to bring to the pupil familiarity with the *Prayer Book* and the Bible, and emphasis is laid upon the mastering of a given amount of subject-matter. Not infrequently boys are asked to write a brief of the sermon preached at the Sunday morning service. This type of religious instruction is common to all church schools, and though the course in sacred study varies with different schools, the objects of this formal religious instruction seem to be to present (1) a general knowledge of the history contained in the Old Testament, (2) the life of Christ, and (3) the principles of Christianity and their application to individual and social life. Some schools have for the first and second forms a course in "Catechism, with questions on the Christian Covenant, faith and duty, and on the Sacraments."* The method of instruction demands a large amount of memorizing, and frequent written tests and reviews are given.

Sunday at Church Schools.—Sunday at a church school presents few problems because of the many activities which are open to the boy. The total amount of time spent in worship is from an hour and three-quarters to two hours and a half, and for the remainder of the day, exclusive of time spent at meals, boys are free to read, tramp, canoe or pass the day in a variety of ways which do not necessitate strenuous bodily exercise. A period of an hour at the end of the afternoon is reserved for letter-writing or reading, and in

* *St. Paul's Catalogue.*

the evening, after the regular evening service, the Missionary Society may meet to discuss the condition of the neighboring missions which the school is supporting, the status of foreign and home missions, or perhaps the prospect for a successful year at the school camp which the school maintains for the benefit of a group of needy children of New York or Boston.* Occasionally a prominent missionary addresses the society.

Time Spent on Study.—During the week the total amount of time spent on study, in class and in preparation for class, varies from five to eight hours daily, and of this time approximately three hours and a half are spent in morning school, which begins immediately after morning chapel and lasts until twelve-thirty or one. During this time there is usually one recess of from fifteen minutes to a half-hour, and perhaps one study or preparation period. The recitation periods are from three-quarters of an hour to an hour in length and are of the same duration for members of the first and sixth forms. There is a single study period in the afternoon, and from an hour and a quarter to two hours and a half are devoted to study in the evening.

Method of Study.—During the study period a boy, more often than not, spends his time in studying a lesson from a single text-book and in mastering a given amount of examinable fact. If he is studying Latin, the assignment may be a number of lines to translate or a quantity of syntax to master, and during

*Groton has such a camp at Asquam, N. H. during July and August.

the recitation period the boy is questioned on the content of the lesson. Emphasis is laid upon drill and the disciplining of the mind by a mastery and recitation of definite assignments. The conventional method of "giving out" the lesson in a few words, by stating the lines to be translated, the problems to be solved or the number of chapters to be read and digested, still exists in institutions of this type. A boy is told to learn what the text in English grammar says about complements; he learns what the words of the book are and thinks he knows the difference between a direct object and a predicate nominative. When the time comes for an examination of the knowledge gained, the boy either delivers or fails. If he fails, he is sent to "detention," after the regular school hours, and studies for a definite time what he might easily have mastered under adequate supervision. Thus the teaching in the church school is almost universally of the examination type.

Limited Application of Supervised Study.—The realization that this method of study is unsatisfactory has caused one school* to establish a period each day to be used as a period of study under supervision as distinguished from recitation. At the present time few schools have definite periods when pupil may interview master in the hope of learning more intelligent *methods* of study. Professor Judd of the University of Chicago has pointed out that algebra has been long recognized as a source of heavy failure in schools, and that failures have been accounted for by the natural

* Groton has a period at the end of school in which masters may instruct individuals in method.

incapacity of certain students for mathematical types of thought. "When a failing student is carefully studied, however, it is found that his difficulty arises out of his inability to attack the problem. He does not know the elementary methods of algebraic manipulation. The class, in the meantime, is 'going through the book,' and the student gets hopelessly behind. The experiment in supervised study is an effort to correct the difficulties which have arisen in the past. The instructor is with the student when he attacks the problem. Difficulties are taken up together. There is no formal getting of answers, but there is a genuine attack on problems." In the institution where supervised study has been tried the results have been decidedly favorable. The method, however, has had only a limited application. Church schools have by no means solved the problem of supervision.

Limited Utilization of Interest.—The method of supervising the pupil's study is one of several signs in the church school of a very limited application of new and more efficient methods of teaching. The direct method in modern and ancient languages;* a method of teaching English which until the last year of the course eliminates prescribed texts, disregards college entrance requirements, and organizes the classes into "reading clubs,"† whose purpose is to discuss

* The direct method has been used successfully at St. George's and at Groton.

† I quote from the *Groton School Catalogue:* "In the first five forms no books are prescribed, and, with rare exceptions, no two boys read the same book at the same time. The classes are organized into reading clubs, which discuss their reading from whatever angle seems profitable."

their reading from many points of view; the teaching of the classics through the classical drama; and finally the attempt on the part of a few masters to establish more profitable coordination between departments in order that the pupil will understand that the content of all teaching is, or should be, closely allied—these are indications that among a limited number of church-school teachers there is a realization of the need of methods based upon interest rather than discipline.

Reasons for Efficiency in Intellectual Accomplishment.—Efficiency in intellectual accomplishment within the church school has been achieved in five ways: (1) through the pupil's innate desire of success, (2) because of his interest in the content and method of instruction, (3) because of the rivalry due to the marking system, (4) because of the pupil's desire to avoid the consequences of failure, and (5) because of the pupil's desire to qualify for college. The first cause of achievement is least affected by a method of teaching; thus the pupil desiring to succeed will strive to overcome all obstacles, and studies which are "against the grain" are no hindrance to success. The second cause of achievement—the pupil's interest in the content and method of instruction—is realized by those who advocate breaking away from imposed college requirements, and who uphold the new "reading-club" method of teaching literature, the direct method in teaching ancient and modern languages, and the teaching of language through the drama. Interest in the content and method of instruction when aroused affects all boys because interest becomes then the vehicle of achievement. The third cause reaches all

boys in the school though it places emphasis upon the symbol of accomplishment and not upon a reality. The desire to avoid the consequences of failure involves the school's attitude toward punishments. Finally, the desire of the pupil to qualify for college has led this type of institution to place great emphasis upon preparation for the university and thus to gain a greater efficiency in intellectual achievement. Of these five causes the first, obviously, has no place in this discussion of method. The second cause has not been at work sufficiently to warrant fuller discussion here; the direct method in language and the method of teaching language through the drama at present are in an experimental stage; their use is limited to one or two schools; the "reading-club" method of teaching English literature, though successful, has been employed in only one school; and cooperation of the various departments is not as yet a realized fact.

The Marking System.—The realization of the third cause of intellectual achievement, i. e., the marking system, has led the school to lay great emphasis upon the grading of pupils. In the majority of institutions there are marks which indicate the pupil's standing for one week; and monthly marks, or in some cases mid-term marks, based upon the attainable standard of one hundred, are sent regularly to parents or guardians. The mid-term, or the monthly grades, are sometimes read aloud to the school and posted in a conspicuous place in the schoolhouse. The rivalry which this causes between individuals and between classes undoubtedly raises the standard of the daily recitation, though it is a question whether in the daily success at

recitation and success in school and college tests there is an ethical value. Unquestionably the system of appraising each pupil's recitation and of making the recitation period a time when the teacher questions and pupil answers has a disastrous effect upon the continuity of discussion. Furthermore, its effect upon the pupil is to place before him, not the value of obtaining learning, but the value of attaining a high grade, which for him means privilege and a greater freedom of activity than for the boy whose work is, say, below seventy.

Detention.—The fourth cause for efficiency in intellectual achievement, i. e., the desire of the boy to avoid the consequences of failure, shows the church school's conception of the value and nature of punishments. *Detention* is the period after regular hours when the boy, because of failure to recite satisfactorily, must study his lesson or the portion of the lesson that he "missed." For the most part this period is not a period of supervision; it is a period of drill, and the exercises done at this time are in reality punishments for negligence or error. Time is usually given each pupil and he is excused when this time has been *served*. In the majority of cases the work done in detention is not constructive; there is scarcely any supervision of study; and in many cases the exercises required of boys are "copy" exercises, repeated, in the case of egregious errors, a number of times. The value of such work is seen in the recitation the next day, when the boy recites his missed paradigms correctly. The disadvantages, though real, are not measurable. They are manifest when the boy spends much

more time than is necessary in doing work which under the supervision of a master would be accomplished with greater ease and to greater effect.

Preparation for College.—Finally, efficiency in intellectual achievement is gained because of the pupil's desire to qualify for college. This desire usually affects only boys in the last year of the school. The belief that the work at hand is of definite value to one who is about to enter college emphasizes a kind of perverted utility aim of education. The boy sees little value in studying Cæsar, Virgil and Xenophon; he questions the value of plane geometry and of Burke's *Speech on Conciliation with America;* and because in his opinion each subject should be *interesting* or *useful,* he finds that the majority of the subjects in the curriculum do not make their appeal to him. When, however, he finds that a subject is to be used as a means of promotion to college, he is ready to attack problems which are not of great interest to him. The desire to qualify for college, therefore, raises the standard of scholarship within the school.

The Curriculum.—The curriculum of a church school is not greatly different from the curricula of other American college preparatory schools. It demands more language and less science; and there is less freedom in the choice of electives. The course runs throughout six years, and there are no studies in the church-school curriculum which are not in the list of examination studies of Yale, Harvard and the college entrance board. At most schools Latin occupies more than one-seventh of the time devoted to all subjects, and the same may be said of English, French

and German. At a school of this type the combined science courses occupy less than one-twentieth of the total amount of time spent on all subjects. Latin and English are studied in each form, and (in the majority of schools) mathematics and a modern language. The following course of study is typical of American church schools:

Form I—Latin, Mathematics, English, History, French or German, Geography, Sacred Study.

Form II—Latin, Mathematics, English, French or German, History, Sacred Study.

Form III—Latin, Mathematics, History, French or German, English, Greek, Sacred Study.

Form IV—Latin, Greek,* Mathematics, History, English, Sacred Study.

Form V—Latin, Greek, Mathematics, English, History, Physics† or Chemistry, Sacred Study.

Form VI—Latin, Greek, Mathematics, English, History, Physics or Chemistry, Sacred Study.

It will be seen from this course of study that much emphasis is laid upon the traditional subjects. The needs and interests of present-day life in the pupil's own environment are not met. Nor does the curriculum work toward the broadening of the pupil's own individual activity. Civics, the industrial and fine arts, elementary nature study, drawing, geology, botany, zoology—these studies do not have a place in the church-school curriculum. So-called scientific courses exist in some institutions, but in such instances the term "scientific" is misleading, for it serves merely to distinguish courses which have not a preponderance of science but a minimum of the classics.

* Extra mathematics may be substituted for Greek.

† In some institutions physics is not offered in the fifth year.

Minor Studies.—There are minor studies which do not enter into the regular curriculum and for which the boy is not marked. Physical training—work in the gymnasium under professional instruction and calisthenics for five minutes during the morning—is a part of the day's schedule. Manual training* has been introduced into one church school. Music is taught an hour a week at some institutions in connection with the chapel choir, which is composed of boys of the school.

Extra Activities.—Other activities not a part of the curriculum are the school paper, which affords opportunity for practise in writing and editing; debates throughout the winter term between rival clubs and between schools; the museum society, under the supervision of the science teacher; and the missionary society. Boys *who are in good standing* are encouraged to participate in these extra-mural activities, though the dull boy, to whom these activities are best suited, is discouraged from participating in them because of his low standing in the school and because of a real lack of time. Thus such a study as manual training, in many ways, fails to serve its purpose, for the boy whose grades are low is the one who is best served by this activity.

Exercise.—During the recreation period the boy is supposed to be engaged in very active physical exercise. At one school "exercise blanks" are kept by

* Groton has as part of the regular curriculum, printing (three hours per week) and bookbinding (two hours per week). For this work, however, no official credit is given.

boys, and each day the nature of the exercise and the time spent are recorded. At the end of the week squads are formed and those boys who have exercised sufficiently become members of a privileged squad. Under such a system both the amount and quality of the exercise are taken into consideration when the grading of boys is done. Other similar methods for keeping a strict supervision of the boy's physical activities are practised where the exercise-blank system is not in vogue.

Dormitory Life.—This strict supervision of the pupil's activities is apparent, too, in his dormitory life. Groups of from fifteen to thirty boys are placed under one master, whose duty is to be in the dormitory as long as boys are there, and who sees that they are prompt in dressing, tidy and quiet while in the dormitory. His study is a gathering place for the boys in the evening, when boys and master read or talk for a half-hour before bedtime. Activities in the dormitory are carefully supervised, and penalties for lateness or misdemeanor are given by the master in charge or by the prefects (sixth formers who assist the master in maintaining order among younger boys). Life in the dormitory is not wholly formal and disciplinary, however. The master in charge of a group of boys has an opportunity of exerting his personal influence, of adjusting the differences between pupils, of advising in a friendly and confidential way, and of creating in the boy literary taste through the reading and conversation in the evening. Such gatherings, which in some cases have a distinct educational value, are a feature of the life at a church school.

Prefect System.—The prefect system of government used in a majority of schools of this type, gives to competent members of the senior class a nominal share in the administration of the school's routine. The senior prefect, always a member of the sixth form, is usually chosen because of his ability to handle boys. His duties are to assemble the school for meals, to give out notices regarding the physical activities of pupils, and to cooperate with the head master and faculty in maintaining discipline throughout the school. The prefects assist the senior prefect and with him are occasionally consulted by the head master for the purpose of deciding upon minor disciplinary problems which may arise. The prefect system is not a system of self-government, and, save at the Kent School, pupils are given little opportunity of regulating the problems of school life.*

Absence of Self-Government.—Nor will an adequate system of self-government be introduced as long as the importance of discipline is emphasized. Such a system as the one at the Kent School would solve many of the difficulties which a school of this type faces, though it would place an added burden upon the pupils whose prescribed activities at present are too numerous to permit of sustained, mature scholarship. An excess of imposed activities has militated against the development of high intellectual standards in the best students; the added burden of self-government based upon rigid discipline would increase these activities and decrease the opportunity for intellectual

* The Kent School, though it is a school of the Episcopal Church, does not closely resemble schools of this type.

pursuits. On the other hand there would be a decrease in the extra duties of the master, to whom would come more freedom for scholarly pursuits and more opportunity for creative work, without which he must fail as a teacher.

A School Day.—The regularity of a boy's life will best be understood by giving a brief outline of the normal day's activity. The present order runs something as follows: The rising bell rings at 7:00; breakfast comes at 7:30; chapel at 8:30; and school begins at 8:45. School lasts until 1:00, with a recess from 10:30 to 10:45. Dinner comes at 1:15, and the time from 2:15 to 4:30 is devoted to exercise. There is a period of study from 5:00 to 6:00; supper comes at 6:15; and evening school lasts from 7:15 to 8:30, in the case of boys under fifteen, and from 7:15 to 9:30 for others. Lights are out at 10:00.* It is observed from this program that each school day is planned rigidly and that the element of choice does not enter to a large extent into the life of the boy. He has definite periods for the preparation of his studies and stated periods in which he shall exercise. The curriculum leaves little to his choice, and little opportunity is given him to learn to choose wisely by choosing repeatedly. There are of course economic advantages in thus suppressing the pupil's choice; the curriculum is not so varied; fewer masters are needed; and boys are better prepared in those subjects which colleges demand. The boy, it is argued, will later enter

* This is no specific schedule. It is approximately the program for the day at all church schools.

a world where undesirable tasks are to be done; and the training which he receives when he does tasks which are imposed will serve him well in the world beyond school and college.

CHAPTER IV

PLACE OF THE CHURCH SCHOOL IN EDUCATION

THE place of any system of education in the whole of education can not be determined by applying a definite universal standard to that system. Thus one can not judge of the merit of the church school by applying to it the standards of any other type. One must consider the community which the institution serves, the future experiences of the individuals of that community and the relation of this type to those phases of elementary and higher education which are affected by the type.

The Church School Not a Tutoring School.—One must at the outset distinguish between the church school and the tutoring school. There are in the United States, chiefly in the East, schools and school camps which aim solely to prepare boys for college and which are outspokenly tutoring or "fitting" schools. Some of these are institutions where boys spend only the class-room hours; but for the most part they are boarding-schools, distinguishable from the academy, the high school and the church school. Such institutions aim to give their pupils sufficient knowledge to pass college entrance examinations, and some guarantee the passing of these tests. They take the place of the last years of the high school, the academy or the

church school; their theories of education are usually determined by a single instructor, and their curricula are determined wholly by college entrance requirements. Success is measured by the per cent. of successful college entrance papers. Like the institution under discussion, the tutoring school aims to prepare boys for college. Here, however, the similarity between these two types ceases, for the aims of the tutoring school are wholly associated with entrance to the university; the development of character and the preparation for future service are not aimed at in planning its limited activities.

The Church School's Problem.—The problem of greatest importance for the church school is that of placing the boy in an environment in which he will develop physically, spiritually and intellectually; of selecting the best material for instruction, and of using the best methods of instructing boys who will first enter college and later enter important business or professional fields. This question therefore arises: Are the curricula which the school offers, the methods of instruction, and the plan of life adequate for boys who make up the community? Has this group of schools employed the best type of education to meet the needs of its pupils? Those who have determined the policy of the school say that a specific formal type of education is of value to all individuals, irrespective of their future plans; they do not acknowledge the wisdom of utilizing a varied curriculum and of permitting even a limited choice. The difficulty of finding a single type of education which will be of value to all is apparent. Individual differences are great, and the problem of

fitting each adolescent into the same mold is one which no theories have succeeded in solving. The problem of any school is to arrange its system of education so that desirable individual differences are cultivated, not suppressed; it must foster such differences if its education is to be effective. Furthermore, it must consider the social and economic groups from which its pupils are taken.

The Community Which the Church School Serves. —Although the church school is denominational, its pupils (unlike the pupils of Catholic parochial schools) are drawn from no single denomination. Because the tuition is high,* however, and because there are few scholarships which pay substantial stipends, the types of home represented are necessarily not so varied as one finds in free schools or academies. Thus the church school is unique because of the community which it serves. Of those who enter school, approximately one hundred per cent. go to college, and of these a large proportion enter a profession or business. From the public school and from the parochial school boys enter a great variety of trades and professions. The instruction and the curricula in such schools should of necessity be different from the instruction and curricula in the type of school under discussion. It is apparent, too, that the problems which confront the church school are totally different from the problems which confront other types. Thus the school says that vocational guidance is not essential, because the boy, before entering his business or profession, has

* St. Mark's, $900; St. George's, $900; Groton, $950; St. Paul's, $950.

four years ahead of him at the university, and it has not felt responsible for the discovery of a boy's natural talents. This, it has maintained, should be the proper function of the university.

Advantages of Serving a Single Social Group.—Since this institution does not aim to meet the needs of a variety of economic groups, it has a good opportunity of becoming acquainted with the peculiar needs of the group which it embraces. It can readily apply the same standards of daily living to all of the members of the school community, and it can exact of each pupil the same orderliness of habit, the same mode of living and the same external relationship to his fellows. Like the members of a large family group, the members of the school early develop a close community spirit, and each boy's life is soon regulated and adjusted to the lives of others. In this respect the church school has a distinct advantage over other types of schools where diverse groups or classes of individuals are represented: the complications which arise continually in larger day schools are not to be found at the church school. Thus the mode of life is simple and the mechanical process of merely training boys is rendered comparatively easy. The *system* of educating a special group or class is obviously less difficult to establish than the system of educating representatives from a variety of groups.

Disadvantages of Serving a Single Group.—This uniformity of life has, however, its disadvantages. Because the problems are not always common to other types, teachers are kept out of touch with the problems which other schools face. This fact alone accounts for

much of the isolation of the church school in the larger educational activities; its conference bears no relation to larger teachers' associations, and teachers themselves do not feel in sympathy with all that goes on in the larger educational world. Thus the master who visits an association composed chiefly of the public-school teachers of a large city feels that the common experience of boys at his school and boys at public schools is so limited that the problems which are faced by the public-school teacher are not the ones he must solve. Accordingly, the teacher is not in close touch with all that might be of assistance to him in his work. This absence of cooperation between this and other types of schools greatly affects the operations within the individual institutions. The various departments of the school, for the most part, lack organization, and there is little cooperation between these departments. In short, the masters and associations of masters are not *en rapport* with educational activities which are not directly associated with their restricted fields.

Extra-Mural Supervision in High School, Academy and Church School.—In attempting to function as church and as home, this type of school is to be distinguished from other secondary institutions. The high school, save in a few instances, has not tried to cooperate with parents by advising what activities are best suited to this or that type of individual, although at the present time among some institutions west of Buffalo there is an attempt to correlate school work and work done within the home, to place more importance upon outside activities, and in a few instances to grade this extra accomplishment. Such a movement

is by no means universal, and of the twenty-four hours of the day usually not more than six are given over to work which has any association with school. Few teachers are acquainted with the conditions of the home, the attitude of parents to the life about them, the companionships which boys form, the religion or even the occupations of the parents. In the academy the relation between intra- and extra-mural activities is closer, though for the most part the boy is free to come and go as he pleases, to choose his companions from various economic and social groups, to attend whatever church he desires, to exercise when recitations do not interfere, and to study when he will: like the pupil of the free high school, he is given a liberty and responsibility which the church school does not permit.

Advantages of Extra-Mural Supervision.—What are the advantages of an education which is extended throughout the whole day and which supervises activities usually confined to the church, the home and the school? The value of any education rests upon its ability to give the pupil power to employ, in his proper environment, knowledge which he has previously acquired; to face new difficulties, and to meet and solve the problems of daily life. Now the church school, acting in its threefold capacity, has one decided advantage over other types of secondary schools. Boys seen at close range may be studied in all of their activities, and because the duties of the teacher are not confined to the class room, masters get a variety of points of view not possible in the case of the teacher in the academy, the free high school or any private school which does

not assume duties *in loco parentis.* Much has been said of the doubtful value of secondary schools which take upon themselves the duties of the home. One critic* of such institutions, who voices the common objection, says that "they are not developing in their best students as high qualifications on the intellectual side as the public high school does." Now the writer of this statement, drawing upon data furnished by Harvard University, does not distinguish between the academy, the church school and the tutoring school, and he relies upon grades determined by "facts" rather than the proper handling of facts to meet a given situation. The real value, then, of this type of education can not be determined by searching the records in recorders' offices, though, as I have shown, its value as a college preparatory school may be so determined. Thus in estimating the school's place in education this question arises: Of what value is formal education in meeting the facts of experience?

Disadvantages of Constant Supervision.—The transition from church school to college is obviously more violent than from high school and academy. From an institution where the power of choosing wisely has not been developed the boy is suddenly thrust into a community where this power is most needed. A pupil who enters the university from a school of this type has been forced to rely upon a routine, the only asset of which is its economy. During every hour of the day he has been guarded, and the power of choosing wisely has not been developed be-

* *The American Secondary School,* Julius Sachs.

cause he has not been allowed to choose repeatedly. At Harvard, where the elective system is unrestricted, or at Yale and Princeton, where there is a limited form of this system, the value of a training which allowed no choice and of a life where the activities were prescribed must turn upon the help which this life and this training afford a pupil in an emergency. If the undergraduate is to direct his own education at the university, without competent advisers familiar with the peculiar needs of the individuals they are advising, he must have had previously an education which emphasized the development of a guiding consciousness. He must, as Abraham Flexner* has pointed out, "be headed the right way; he must be able to take his bearings; he must be trained actively to handle himself in a concrete situation rather than just passively to learn." Such a preparation must of necessity precede a college education at the more radical institutions which have elective systems, and such an education is not given by the American church school.

Disciplinary Religious Training Does Not Tend to Make Boys Religious.—Nor does the religious training in schools of this type tend to make the undergraduate actively interested in religious observances. At Harvard, where attendance at chapel is optional, few undergraduates attend service regularly, if we may judge by graduating class statistics; and of these a small per cent. are members of denominational schools. At Yale attendance throughout the four years is required; and the opinion of undergradu-

* *The American College* (The Century Co.).

ates regarding religious service is of little value because of a college tradition which obscures the ethical value of obligatory religious service. Whether or not compulsory chapel attendance once a day throughout the school year militates against religious activity in college where that activity is optional is not easily determined. Certainly the absence of choice in secondary school is not the best preparation for a complete freedom of choice in college.

The effort to substitute for the study of disciplinary subjects a wise use of electives which will meet the needs of every pupil throughout the school course and which will tend to develop gradually the power of choosing, has not been made in the church school as it has in some types of secondary schools. When the scope of secondary-school programs was increased and the narrow content of formal studies enriched, the church-school program remained constant. When the division was made of the high-school program into several parallel groups, or courses of study, in which were both or one or more of the classical languages, there was no corresponding alteration in the courses of study in the church school; the only apparent change which took place as a result of a partial introduction of electives into high schools was the division, in a single institution, of one course of study into "classical" and so-called "scientific" branches at the beginning of the fourth year of the course.

The Church School's Attitude Toward the Teaching of Science.—Now it is significant that few graduates of church schools enter into the fields of scientific research. As undergraduates at the university they

do not take advanced courses in science because in their secondary-school education there was little opportunity to pursue courses other than those prescribed for college entrance. In minimizing the instruction in science the school limits the opportunities of its graduates; and because comparatively few scholars follow up the elementary classical training with advanced training at the university, both science and the classics are in time neglected. Huxley, in an essay on *Science and Art in Education,* tells of the dissatisfaction in one school occasioned by the introduction of physical science into that school—even after experiment. "But the experiment consisted in this," writes Huxley, "in asking one of the junior masters in the school to *get up* science, in order to teach it; and the young gentleman went away for a year and *got up* science and taught it." The attitude of that English school toward science was not unlike the attitude which our church schools assume to-day.

Absence of Vocational Guidance.—Nor has the program been shaped by those who lay emphasis upon a utilitarian education. "Train the boy in the proper habits, and the utilitarian or vocational application will look out for itself when the proper time comes. We have nothing to do with the bread-and-butter aim of education; that belongs to the business college, the technical school, the agricultural school, the purely vocational school." And with such institutions the type under discussion has had little in common; its curricula, its methods and its policy have separated it from schools which aim to prepare boys vocationally.

The Church School and the Elementary School.—The relation of the church school to the elementary school resembles in many ways the relation which the university bears to this type of school. Public elementary education has been little affected by the pressure of higher education upon the high school. However, elementary schools which aim to prepare boys for Groton, St. George's, Pomfret, St. Mark's or St. Paul's are affected indirectly by college entrance requirements. A definite set of arbitrary requirements has been made, and the smaller elementary schools* arrange their curricula so as to have the boy meet these requirements. English grammar, geography and arithmetic are universal requirements for admission to schools of this type, though no uniform examinations are at present given at the time of entrance. Thus the school is closely linked to higher education and to a number of isolated elementary schools—linked in such a way as to render the school which is affected, be it secondary or elementary school, less free to adapt itself to the peculiar needs of its pupils.

Graduates.—Beyond the university, graduates of this type of school enter a variety of activities. It will be seen from the following data,† however, that approximately two-thirds of the graduates enter business (comprising banking and brokerage, law, general business, real estate and insurance, and manufacturing):

* For example, the Fay School at Southborough, Mass., St. Bernard's in New York City, and like elementary schools.

† These statistics are taken from one church school. It is reasonable to expect that, in the main, the same ratios exist in all schools of this type.

Profession	Graduates	Per cent.
Banking and Brokerage	109	25¾
Law	70	16⅓
General Business	59	14
Architecture	25	5⅞
Farming	23	5¼
Real Estate and Insurance	19	5
Engineering	18	4⅔
Manufacturing	14	3⅓
Medicine	14	3⅓
Diplomacy	13	3
Miscellaneous Professions	12	2¾
Teaching	12	2¾
Journalism	10	2⅓
Ministry	9	2⅛
Art	7	1⅔
Army	5	1⅕
Navy	4	1

The evidence which this table gives is that the occupations of comparatively few graduates are enriched by a curriculum based upon the classical tradition, formal discipline and the complete supervision of all activities. Of the sixty-five per cent. who enter business, a large majority do so because business is their inheritance; others because no natural talents for the arts and sciences have been discovered. These groups obviously would be much reduced if there were greater opportunity to choose.

Permanence of the Church-School Type.—In surveying the status of the church school in present-day education one readily becomes assured of the permanence of this type. Its scholastic reputation among preparatory schools, its well-established and valuable equipment, its tradition, which a large body of well-

organized graduates keep alive, its connection with the Episcopal Church and its comparative wealth make the future existence of the school secure. It is a well-established, acknowledged type, and its history shows that it has arisen because of a demand for a system of secondary-school education which will serve as church, as home, as school and which will give adequate preparation for college. There is no reason to believe that the demand for such a type of school will cease.

Elements of Change.—Within the school there are a few sporadic elements of change in the method and content of teaching. These, however, do not affect the daily life of the community. The atmosphere of the home and of the church will exist always because these are things which distinguish this type of school. Whatever real progress comes into its policy will be due in a large measure to the influence of head masters, faculties and boards of trustees; the increase in endowments; the foundation of a conference which will serve educationally; a more favorable attitude of the colleges and universities to secondary schools, and the consequent introduction of more freedom of choice; the success of such present experiments as the teaching of manual training, the direct method in language and new methods of teaching literature; and finally the relinquishing of a belief in formal discipline.

Future Government.—The influence of the head master in determining the policy of the school has always been great. In other school systems the methods of principals and teachers have been restricted by boards of trustees which wished to impose an unsci-

entific management of the school upon those who presumably were responsible for its maintenance. In the church school, however, head masters have been comparatively free to bring about whatever changes they desired to make. The employing of masters, the selection and arrangement of curricula, the length of the school day and of the recitation periods, have been decided by the head master, sometimes in consultation with the other members of the faculty, sometimes alone. There is no reason to believe that in the future boards of trustees will change their policy. Thus, those policies which affect the running of the school will be determined, as they have been determined in the past, by the head master chiefly, and to a small degree by the faculty.

The Conference of the Future.—The policy of the general body of church schools, the institution's attitude to elementary and university education, and its attitude to educational problems as these problems affect all schools as a single organization will be determined by the church-school conference. Progressive ideas of education will reach the body of church schools only as it reaches the congress of church schools—a congress which now aims to attack the problems of education, but which attacks these problems ineffectually. The conference serves merely as an agreeable place where masters from various schools meet and talk about things of common experience. Little has been accomplished at these bi-yearly meetings; little will be accomplished of value until the members of this body feel the need of obtaining a more complete knowledge of the science of education. In the

future the effectiveness of the conference will be increased only by more frequent meetings and by a cooperation with larger associations of teachers from other types of secondary schools.

The Future of the School Depends upon Endowment.—The future of this type of school depends also upon endowment. Extra curricula activities which require much expensive equipment, such as well-ordered laboratories, manual-training apparatus, printing establishments, facilities for nature study—these things can come only through private endowment. At present the majority of schools are restricted because there is no school fund which can make possible the development of such activities. Only when such a fund is the possession of each school will there be a possibility of broadened and enriched curricula and of wider extra-curricula activity.

The Future of the School Depends upon the University.—The attitude of the university to a large degree will determine the policy of preparatory schools in the future. A few universities at present, particularly those of the Middle West, are trying to break down the wall which exists between college and secondary school. The universities to which boys from church schools go, however, have taken few steps to make easy the transition. If the university places more assurance upon the secondary school and abolishes completely the unwise examinations at entrance, the church school will be free of an outside restricting influence and will at least have the power of transforming a purely classical course of study into enriched and broadened courses which will meet the

needs of a variety of individuals. This enrichment and broadening of the curriculum will not be assured by a progressive interest on the part of the university; it will depend also upon the degree of faith in the classical tradition within the school and upon a readiness to acknowledge the values of a new science of education.

The Future of the School Depends upon Experiments now Being Tried in One or Two Schools.—To a certain extent the future of the school will depend upon the success of experiments which are now being carried on within certain schools. These experiments are not wide-spread; they affect few institutions, and in these they do not attract a universal and an abiding interest. The direct method in teaching language seems to have gained the widest acknowledgment, and its success leads one to believe that in the future all church schools will come to adopt this method. The "reading-club" method of teaching English has brought boys constantly into contact with our literature. Mechanical training, too, in spite of the opposition it has had, has shown that there are great possibilities of its development. The success of these experiments will cause individual teachers to place more emphasis upon methods and curricula which do not emphasize examination and formal discipline.

Radical Changes not to be Looked for.—The history of education has shown that systems of education are slow to change. Since the founding of the Round Hill School at Northampton, few important developments have been made in the church school's theory of education. The life of the boy at a school of this

type is at present what it was during the early days of the Round Hill School, the curricula to-day are in general similar to the curriculum of Round Hill, and methods of teaching have changed but slightly. Nor is there evidence that the church school will suddenly be carried along by the flood of progressive educational theory which has swept over portions of the land; its foundations are too deep, its intellectual ideals too firmly established in classical tradition; and the security and prominence of its position militate against an immediate and radical change in its theory of education.

The English Public School

By J. J. Findlay

The English Public School

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTORY AND HISTORICAL

THE theme of these chapters has always proved of interest to Americans. After Oxford and Cambridge there are probably no English institutions which attract more regard from visitors across the water than the English public schools, of which Rugby, Eton and Harrow may be taken as the best-known examples. For these venerable places have been the nursery of great Englishmen; right through the nineteenth century the great majority of men famous in war, in politics, in literature, owed their education to these academies and the devotion of alumni to their schools extended their fame far and wide. And although each of these public schools possesses peculiar features, they are not isolated from one another in standards and principles; rather they present us with a very distinctive type of social institution, sharing methods and ideals much in contrast with other systems of schooling either in England or abroad.

How the Public Schools Originated.—Roughly speaking they number about one hundred and educate some thirty thousand boys. The three schools men-

tioned above have a unique reputation, but they conform in all essential particulars to the rest, some of which were founded only fifty years ago, while others date their origin further back, to periods more remote than any of these three.

We must turn to an earlier page of English social history to discern the forces that led to the development of these remarkable communities. Before the nineteenth century the Englishman had always been a countryman rather than a townsman. The figure of "John Bull" displays what is still the ideal of many an Englishman: a man who lives on his acres, with sheep and cattle, with woods near at hand, with dogs and gun to hunt for game; a country squire, fed on beef and ale; a country parson never reluctant to take off his surplice and don a riding jacket. Now such a man was always ready to send his sons away from home at an early age to a boarding-school, and in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries most of the grammar schools, as well as the few famous schools in and about London which became distinguished as "public" schools, received boarders.

And there was a special reason why this custom flourished in England while it made little headway on the continent. As compared with Germany or France, England was a safe country in which to move about. The last battle on English ground took place in 1685; and if the years 1643 to 1658 be omitted, there had been no serious fighting on English soil since the accession of the Tudors. Apart from London only Oxford and Cambridge became centers of literature or learning; for men and women preferred to

live in the country, enjoying a quiet security which could not be paralleled on the continent until the end of Napoleon's devastating conquests.

So the boys were commonly sent away to school. Even the wealthiest of the nobility followed this rule, and if the sons of a noble house, when little boys, had a private tutor, the tutor would often be sent away with them to the school as a special teacher and guardian. Despite the fact that many of the schools were ill-conditioned, with ushers badly equipped and badly paid, this kind of education was no doubt expensive. In fact, the cost of such schooling must have been far greater than that involved in the contemporary provisions afforded to sons of burghers in a German city. But it must be remembered that England of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was a wealthy country; the country houses built in those days still survive all over the Midlands and the South to show what resources the country gentleman had at his disposal.

Learning to "Rough It."—Thus when we enter the nineteenth century we find a tradition firmly established as regards the education of boys, viz.: that the best course for an adventurous lad was to cut him adrift from home at a tender age and let him learn to give and take among his fellows, learning to "rough it," as the phrase ran. It was the strength of this tradition which prevented (what otherwise one would have expected) the development of efficient secondary schools at this epoch. All over the north of England, from 1780 onward, there was witnessed a rapid increase of wealth and of population. But, when a man secured wealth by manufacture or trade and rose in

social station he did not seek a school for his lads close at hand; he copied the example of earlier times in the South and Midlands and sought education for them in one of the London public schools or at Rugby, Winchester or Shrewsbury.

The Schools a Hundred Years Ago.—The picture presented by these schools a hundred years ago is not pleasant to recall. The best of them no doubt secured the services of clergymen displaying sound learning and high character, but rarely did they add to these qualities any real interest in boy life; and the poorer sort of schools were staffed by men who could claim little respect either for their wits or their virtue; when they maintained authority over their turbulent horde of scholars the only resource was brute force. The curriculum was the barren tradition of Renaissance scholarship, which at its best only laid hold of rarer intellects; while out of school a callous public opinion was content to let boys rule one another as best they might. "Seats and nurseries of vice" was the short and sharp judgment of these places, which a later age (awakened to its responsibilities toward English youths) has confessed to be accurate. Fortunately for the credit and good fame of England, reform had not long to wait. After the nightmare of struggle against Napoleon and the apathy of the decade that followed, the country experienced, in many directions, a period of moral reformation. The Factory Acts, the abolition of trade in slaves, the Reform Bill are evidences on a large scale of a profound movement in the social conscience. It is not surprising, therefore, that before 1830, men had begun to demand some reform in the

boisterous ill-bred child life to which their own sons were condemned when they left the shelter of home.

The demand for reform was at first expressed in the universities; for it was Oxford and Cambridge that supplied the masters to all these schools. Both these universities shared the revival of morals to which we have referred: the High-Church movement was not only a religious revival but a moral reformation, and its opponents were equally solicitous to restore Christian ethics, although they quarreled so bitterly over matters of creed. Hence it is not surprising that Thomas Arnold was indebted to the moral and religious stir that pervaded the Oxford of his day for the new spirit of enthusiasm which enabled him to reform Rugby, and while so doing, to render an imperishable example to every English school. This was the Oxford of Gladstone, of Newman and of many another of less fame who helped to rescue England from the manifold distresses of a great crisis in national history.

Hence it came about that the public schools, as we know them to-day, are essentially what they were made to be by the men who taught in them between 1830 and 1850; of these, Arnold at Rugby was predominant, but he was not alone. Like other great men, his success was due to the fact that he was born at the right moment. The public conscience was aroused, and he answered the call with a genius and energy that were unsurpassed. In England it is rare for a man of great talents to devote himself to the service of children. Arnold had great ambitions, as he himself confessed. If he had remained a layman he would certainly have risen high in political service; he died at forty-six,

and in addition to his work as a schoolmaster, he stood in the front rank as a historian. It is not surprising that a man of such insight and force should leave a permanent mark upon our educational system, although he only kept school for fourteen years.

Arnold and the Public-School System.—We can, therefore, most readily grasp the *ethos* of this type of school by studying Arnold, and in this respect both Arnold and the student are fortunate in his biographer. Stanley's *Life of Arnold* is read wherever English biography is read at all, and in chapters three and four we have the essential elements of the public-school system. What is lacking in the biography can be supplied from Arnold's own writings, especially from certain of the sermons which he preached in Rugby Chapel.

We shall endeavor in a moment to review the principal features of this scheme of education; but before doing so, let us complete the historical survey, by observing how fortunate it was that this reformation in the public school took place when it did. For the stream of boys which we noticed as coming from the industrial North did not slacken as the century progressed: on the contrary the wealth of England and the wealthy part of the population expanded to even greater proportions after the abolition of the Corn Laws. The public schools of old foundation were quite unable to educate all that sought to enjoy the benefits of boarding-school; right through the century new schools multiplied on every hand, and a few such as Cheltenham, Clifton, Wellington rose rapidly to great honor: but many others were set on foot, by

Methodists, Congregationalists, Quakers, as well as by private teachers. For a long time many of these last felt little or nothing of the reforming influence which Arnold and his contemporaries had inspired, but all the best were sooner or later affected by it, as we shall see when we come, in a closing chapter, to examine the public school as it stands to-day among other types of secondary schools which serve the nation's need.

REFERENCES

Stanley's *Life of Arnold* has been frequently reprinted. The present writer many years ago edited *Arnold of Rugby, His School Life and Contributions to Education,* including Chapters III and IV from Stanley, with Rugby Sermons and Educational Essays by Arnold and a Bibliography.

Bompas Smith, in Chapter XII of Sadler, *Moral Instruction and Training in Schools,* Vol. I (Longmans, 1908), gives a clear account of the place of the public schools as a group among other secondary schools.

Norwood and Hope, *Higher Education of Boys in England,* dealing with every aspect of public-school life. These two books serve also as references for Chapters II to IV.

The Public Schools from Within (Sampson, Low and Co., London, 1908) contains papers of the same character as those in Norwood and Hope, but they are less comprehensive in scope.

CHAPTER II

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

TO gain a picture of the life in a public school let us first take a visitor through the buildings. The most important will usually be the school chapel. Matthew Arnold's poem entitled *Rugby Chapel* shows what an intimate claim the chapel has upon the alumni. And all who have read *Tom Brown's School Days* will recall the sincere terms which the wild and rough lads of those days held with the sacred influences of their place of prayer. In adult life morals and religion can readily be distinguished, but the adolescent is not prone to make these fine distinctions; hence the cultivation of religious feeling is never ignored, although the English temperament, among both boys and men, tends to be reserved in its expression.

The Equipment of the Schools.—The secular teaching is given in a series of class rooms and laboratories such as are common to all good secondary schools, in Europe and America alike. There will probably be separate provision for a school library, for a school assembly hall, for a gymnasium, swimming baths, fives and racket courts and for workshops. Ample space covering many acres of ground will be secured for the national games of cricket and football. But a unique provision characteristic of the pub-

lic school will be found in the "houses," i. e., residences holding from twenty to sixty or more of the boys, each in charge of a senior master. The master commonly owns the building and earns the larger part of his income out of the profits accruing from the provision of board and lodging to his pupils. These houses are not always built on the school "campus," but will often be erected in neighboring streets just as in the case of fraternity houses that receive students attending an American college. The largest of such houses will be the residence of the head master and is often called The School House. In schools of old foundation, such as Rugby, this building was the original school, dating back to early times when one such schoolhouse was adequate to receive all the boarders that attended. It is in this domestic provision, separately organized from the arrangements for teaching, that we can best study the distinctive features of the place. When a boy applies for admission to a public school, he is entered not only on the roll of the school to receive instruction, but he is allotted to a house for residence; his parents will be quite as anxious about the character of the house master and the reputation of his house as they are about the instruction imparted in school hours. For the house is a community within itself; it is the permanent home for several years of some fifty active spirits whose life is largely self-directed, although strictly controlled by custom and tradition. Just as the day-school boy in the city leads a double life, partly at lessons with teachers and classmates, partly at home with parents and friends of the home circle, so the public-school boy has his "house"

friends, with whom he takes his meals and spends his leisure hours. His house master leads the same divided life: in school hours he is a class teacher; in his house he is also a teacher, but in a different sense, for he stands *in loco parentis,* as the saying is, to all the flock who sleep and feed under his roof. This double sphere of work is not of course assigned to all the masters, since a much larger staff is required for teaching than for domestic supervision.

When a young man first comes from Oxford and Cambridge to teach at a public school he has no connection with a house, unless in a subordinate capacity to help an overworked house master; he must wait his turn and only after a number of years' work, when he has settled down to the service of the school, can he expect to be invited by the head master to occupy one of these coveted posts. Incidentally we may here note that many public-school masters remain at the school of their choice for life, or at any rate a great number of years, much in contrast to what prevails in American high schools. The emoluments are such as to procure the service of men of ability, willing to give their best powers to an institution whose stability and efficiency afford a worthy sphere of usefulness, although it cuts them off to a large extent from a wider interest in national affairs. Stanley's account of the motives which governed Arnold in his selection of assistants at Rugby throws a clear light on the importance attached to these considerations.

Communities of Adolescents.—We may now leave the external arrangements and endeavor to ascertain the inner principles which have made communities of

this type so effective. The outstanding feature is to be sought in the age of the scholars—they are *adolescents;* few enter these schools before the fourteenth birthday or leave before the age of seventeen; a considerable number stay till they are nineteen. In Arnold's day many boys were sent to these schools at the age of twelve or even younger; but as numbers increased, it became customary to raise the age of entrance, and thirteen is now regarded as quite young enough. To meet the needs of younger boys another type of school, the *preparatory school,* has found favor. There are at least three hundred schools, most of them the private property of their founders, each receiving from twenty to one hundred little boys between the ages of nine and thirteen, to be expressly "prepared" to enter one of these public schools thereafter. It would take us beyond the limits of these chapters to enlarge upon this field of education, but it is important to notice how closely knit is the provision which the wealthier classes of England maintain for a complete scheme of schooling. The little boy attends a preparatory school exclusively designed to fit him for a public school: and if at the public school his career indicates that he should proceed to college at the age of eighteen or nineteen he will almost certainly be sent to Oxford or Cambridge, the two ancient universities which are thus linked by very close ties to the schools which supply them with students and for which, in turn, they equip the schoolmasters.

The public school, then, is a community of adolescents, of youth, well born, with great physical vigor, free from the anxieties of wage-earning youth in hum-

ble circumstances; ready for the discipline which custom and tradition impose, and equally ready to claim a measure of independence in the stir of social activity which a large and homogeneous community affords. The public-school master is no psychologist—on the contrary, he commonly displays a hearty contempt for pedagogic research—but he serves a community which displays at every turn those qualities of youth portrayed for us in recent years by Stanley Hall and other writers.

As Arnold had observed, even before he went to Rugby, lads of this age display a temperament analogous to that of the "childhood of the human race." "A low standard of morals must be tolerated among them" for "they are not susceptible of Christian principles in their full development." Their emotional response leads the young at this period to an intense delight in comradeship: they are hero-worshipers, firm friends of their party, stout foes of their enemies. As the months and years pass by from fourteen to eighteen a public-school boy usually acquires a passionate devotion for his house, or for the leaders of his community. To display these emotions is not "good form"; his outward behavior is commonly curbed by that self-controlled demeanor which is characteristic of the Anglo-Saxon race the world over; but in his inner life he is the prey of sentiment, and the repression induced by his social environment merely serves to brace the character to more strenuous vigor in action.

Social Groupings.—The school is so organized as to give vent for social action in many directions, and

the community divides itself for social purposes into three clearly marked groups:

(a) When a boy first arrives as a youngster, he has to acknowledge his inferiority, as a "fag," and although the duties of a fag to his seniors are nowadays very light, the line of division between junior and elder is rigidly maintained; and maintained not merely by the ancient custom, but by the willingness of both parties, the one to bear rule, the other to follow a leader and obey.

(b) During this year or two of service as a fag, the growing youth makes progress both in his "form" (i. e., class division) at lessons and in his house at games. He then spends another year or two in the middle group of the school, not yet entrusted with authority as a prefect or member of the "sixth form," but exempt from the menial duties that fall to the lot of the fags.

(c) Finally he emerges to a position of responsibility. His studies have carried him to "the sixth," the highest class in lessons; his physical growth enables him to be a leader in games, and his social experience fits him to take on the burden of responsibilities for the common welfare.

Such in brief is the life history of a successful public-school boy from the dawn of youth to his ripening years—an experience which tests both physical prowess and intellectual effort, which by the strain of competition weeds out the weaker sort, and, by its insistence on high social standards, gives a unique power and status to the older scholars who rise to the top in their community.

"Fags" and "Prepostors."—It must not be supposed that these three groups—the youngest, called "fags," the middle part of the school, and the "sixth form," or "prepostors,"—were artificially contrived by Arnold and others. Rather, they are natural divisions which any large society of adolescents, thrown together for a long period apart from home, will exhibit. The act of creating this type of society, of bringing youths together at school, itself originates a social situation with these three distinct groups. The teacher, therefore, has only two remedies: either he himself and his few colleagues must attempt to govern every detail of the school life, refusing to recognize the natural authority of the older scholars and the natural submissiveness of the younger, or he must regulate and systematize the grouping, giving legal power to those whose position warrants them in its exercise. This second remedy was the one adopted by the English public school, in sharp contrast to the French *Lycée* or the German *Gymnasium*.

The "Sixth Form."—Let us dwell a moment longer on the position of the older scholars, for all who have worked in public schools agree that they are the pivot on which the well-being of the corporate body turns. Arnold describes the thirty who composed his "sixth form" as follows: "Those who, having risen to the highest form of the school, will probably be at once the oldest, and the strongest, and the cleverest; and if the school be well ordered, the most respectable in application and general character," and as regards their authority in fagging, "the power given by the supreme authorities of the school to the 'sixth form,' to be

exercised by them over the lower boys, for the sake of securing a regular government among the boys themselves, and avoiding the evils of anarchy, in other words, of the lawless tyranny of physical strength." We may regard this organization as a treatment of youth according to the despotic control which suits a barbarian age. Democratic government is only possible among a "free" people, i. e., an adult population who have reached a stage of moral freedom. A society of adolescents is in this sense not "free"; its members are prepared for adult life not so much by discussing the principles of citizenship as by experiencing a social life where subjection to strong rule, and the exercise of unquestioned authority, each play their part.

The Rule of Absolutism.—The entire organization of public-school life bears the impress of this conception. The head master is an uncrowned king: once appointed by the laymen who compose the governing body, he rules without question. He selects the entire staff of assistants and, if he wishes, he can dismiss them. He alone admits the scholars; he has the final voice in the curriculum; he is captain of the ship from start to finish. The only escape from the possible abuse of such extensive powers is the right of the governing body to dismiss him. Indirectly, of course, the custom and tradition of the school serve as a check: a wise man does not fight against the stars. But so far no criticism (and criticism has seldom been lacking) has modified the position of these rulers: it rests, from the standpoint of psychology, on the belief that a despot is required to control a society of "barbarians."

For, below the head master, each assistant, each

house master, in his rank and office, is a despot, too. In spite of his autocratic power, a head master rarely ventures to intrude on a class room to listen to a lesson; nor would he enter any "house" but his own for the purpose of inspection. Even the youngest master, coming raw and untrained from an Oxford or Cambridge college, will stand on his own feet and discharge his office without interference. It is easy therefore to picture how natural it becomes in such an atmosphere to relegate to "the oldest, the strongest, and the cleverest" among the pupils much of the minor authority which, under other conditions, would fall to the lot of teachers.

Primus Inter Pares.—But the reader must not suppose that this theory of autocracy involves a separation of the various ranks of officers in watertight compartments. If the subjects in this despotism were really "barbarians" no doubt success of a sort could be attained by the sheer force of authority, but they are in a transition stage between childhood and manhood; their intelligence and sympathies alike demand an active exchange and close cooperation between master and subject. Hence it is everywhere observed that the head master lives intensely in his school: he does not make outward show of his affection, but he gives his life, in comradeship with his colleagues and with his pupils, to the community. And the confidence which a great head master displays in his colleagues is not that of a secluded monarch who leaves the cares of a commonwealth to a cabinet, but of a friend, *primus inter pares;* and the relations of the staff with the pre-

postors is of a like kind, giving and receiving the confidence of friends.

Such was, and is, the character of public-school life at its best: it would be easy to show how grave are the misfortunes where the best is not attained; to this darker side of the picture we shall revert below.

CHAPTER III

THE CURRICULUM IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

OUR sketch of the public schools would be inadequate if we neglected to consider the manner in which they discharge their office in teaching. For the public-school master is usually a competent scholar in the chief subjects of instruction which fall to his lot; he has been an "honors man" at his university; and it is sometimes the case (as indeed happened in the case of Arnold himself) that a teacher of public-school boys returns in middle life to his old university as a lecturer or professor. Nor is it to be supposed that a succession of able men, paid sufficiently well to keep them in the permanent service of a great institution, would be so engrossed in the social duties of their position as to despise the daily task of instruction. Even if on other grounds such a neglect was to be apprehended, the stimulus of competition—that great nineteenth-century weapon of progress—has always been at hand to keep the schoolmaster up to the mark. It will be readily understood that a boarding-school is very sensitive to the effects of competition. The day school in a city can rely upon an adequate attendance of scholars, unless the city declines in population and wealth; but the boarding-school must rely upon its reputation, and it will suffer from the rivalry of com-

petitors if it can not "deliver the goods." A striking example was afforded in the fortunes of Harrow School: in 1845 the total attendance was sixty-nine, although in the thirties there were more than three hundred; when the great Doctor Vaughan resigned in 1860, the numbers stood at four hundred and sixty-nine; now over six hundred is the total.

Motives for Admitting New Studies.—We have seen that nearly all the public schools rely mainly upon boarders, except in London. Here we find St. Paul's and Merchant Taylors, of old foundation. Also the City of London School, King's College School, and University College School, all of nineteenth-century foundation, may be ranked among public schools. Each of these, no doubt, can look for a steady flow of pupils from the immense area which surrounds them, and yet they compete with one another as well as with boarding-schools in the country. They depend largely upon fees for their prosperity, and hence the motives to maintain reputation are quite as effective with them as with their rivals. Now, the effect of this competition is to compel the schools to admit new studies side by side with the traditional curriculum of classics and mathematics. To put the matter in terms familiar to American readers: these schools have been compelled to recognize the claims of an elective system and of vocational training as opposed to older theories of general or liberal education. We must note therefore the directions in which "vocation" exerts its influence. First of all they are linked intimately with our two ancient universities: their choicest pupils compete for scholarships offered by Oxford and Cambridge colleges; secondly,

a large number look forward to careers in the army and are prepared for the entrance examinations to Sandhurst or Woolwich; thirdly, an increasing number during the last thirty years expect to enter on careers in manufacture or commerce without proceeding to a university at all, and provision has had to be made for these.

As regards the navy, a word of explanation may be in place. It might be thought that a career so essential to the welfare of England would be closely linked with the public-school system, and in earlier days this was the case. But the naval officer now requires a vocational training of quite a rigid type: he needs at an early age to learn both the discipline and the science of his career. Hence the admiralty now requires boys to enter upon special training at two great naval colleges before fourteen years of age; and greatly to the chagrin of many public-school teachers the severance is now almost complete.

The Influence of Oxford and Cambridge.—Higher education in England has been largely controlled by two peculiar features: firstly, the scholarship system; secondly, the "honors" system. Every college in Oxford and Cambridge possesses large endowments from which funds are forthcoming to pay the fees, and sometimes also to provide maintenance. These are advertised year by year and each college (or a group of colleges in association) conducts a competitive examination; any number from twenty to fifty candidates will journey from their school to write answers to these papers (sometimes also to answer questions in an oral examination) and the best, from three to ten

or twenty, will be chosen. These will henceforth, for three or four years, be "scholars of the college," with a rank of their own (usually sitting at a separate table in the dining hall), the picked men, as far as learning is concerned, in their society.

The system of "honors schools" works in with the scholarship system, although there is no official connection between the two. The bachelor's degree can be secured either by showing moderate attainments in a variety of studies leading to a "pass" degree, or by specializing in a single branch of learning such as classics, mathematics, or modern history, and taking "honors" of a first, second or third class in this branch. The man who wishes to leave the university with a creditable record in study will obviously select one of the honors schools, and his college will expect him to do so. Hence, while membership in an honors school is not confined to men to whom a college has awarded a scholarship, the great majority of "honors men" are scholars of colleges and have been carefully prepared at school to compete for a scholarship with the ambition ultimately of a good first class in honors. This record stamps the scholar as a man of high intellectual ability: it is a standard widely understood and appreciated. No wonder then that the public schools, closely linked both in social and cultural interests with these two universities, should make it one of their chief duties to organize their teaching with this competitive purpose in mind.

It must not, however, be supposed that only those who can win scholarships proceed to Oxford and Cambridge. There are quite a number who, either from

lack of ability or lack of stimulus, are not concerned to compete, but are sent to the university (as so many thousands are sent in America), because it affords the most congenial life for a young man in the later years of adolescence. These will sometimes enter an honors school, but they are often content to "read" for a "pass" degree; and if they fail to secure a degree, sometimes the failure will not trouble either themselves or their parents, since their interests lie in the athletic or social life of their college and university rather than in the pursuit of learning. The public school is concerned to give due attention to these less strenuous souls, since they must attain a moderate degree of efficiency in Latin, Greek and mathematics in order to be matriculated at their university.

Extension of the Scholarship System.—When the scholarship system first took regular shape, in the first half of the nineteenth century, the only serious competitors for these valuable prizes were the public schools; there were no other secondary schools of any account. But the diffusion of secondary education has widened immensely the area of competition: and as no favor is shown in scholarship examinations to a boy coming from a school of known repute, it has become the ambition of many secondary schools to send up a boy of rare ability to secure one of these coveted prizes. Thus the standard has risen, selection has become more pronounced, and to hold their own against these competitors the public schools have been compelled to put forth all their energy. Originally the scholarships were confined to distinction in classics and mathematics; at Oxford mathematics has always held an in-

ferior position, but at Cambridge a fair balance has been maintained between the two. Gradually the innovators secured a place for novel branches of learning: on the one hand the natural sciences asserted their claim; laboratories were erected; "honors schools" of natural science gained a footing and most of the colleges now offer one or two scholarships in these subjects; some do much more than that, especially where the influence of the medical profession has been felt. On the other hand, the wider scope of humanistic study has been admitted, especially in the field of history; boys who show at school a special interest in history or literature can now find scholarships suited to their taste, leading up to an appropriate honors school. Lastly, modern languages have been admitted to similar privileges; but it must be borne in mind that while Latin and Greek have had to share their monopoly with modern rivals, they still maintain their predominance both in the affection of their students and in reputation.

The Dominant Type of Teaching.—It is now easy to realize the dominant type of teaching in a public school. By the time a boy is sixteen it is pretty clearly determined in what field he is likely to make his mark. He will not at so early an age become exclusively a student in this chosen field, but the distinction (to adopt American nomenclature) between his "major" and his "minor" subjects will be quite pronounced. If he is designed for classical studies, he will drop his lessons in natural science; he will only carry on his mathematics so far as will insure success in the elementary requirements; he will probably continue his attention to English literature and history, but his maximum ef-

fort will be spent on ancient history and literature, on diligent translation and detailed study of classical authors and on composition in both Latin and Greek, including verse composition at least in Latin. By the time he is eighteen he is ready to journey to Oxford or Cambridge and try his hand at a scholarship; if he fails at one college or group of colleges he will try at another, for the regulations usually exclude candidates who are over nineteen years of age.

Now if, as in the old days, these scholarships were limited to classics and mathematics, the organization of a public-school curriculum would be a simple affair; but with the addition of natural science, modern history and modern languages as possible "electives" the problem has become increasingly complex. In each of these branches the school requires one or more highly skilled teachers conversant not only with the ordinary scope of their subject, but with its latest development, since the scholarship examination will reflect the advancing currents of treatment which sway the teachers in Oxford and Cambridge who set the papers. And they must be skilled in individual teaching, knowing how to get the most out of a boy, holding the balance between mere cramming with information and the more subtle form of preparation by means of self-reliance and wide grasp. Hence, if you visit the class rooms of a large public school, you will find the "sixth form" embracing a large variety of subjects. All will be giving some attention to the humanities, i. e., to scripture literature and languages, but a few will be spending the bulk of their time in the laboratories, another few working with a history or mathematics tutor, while

more will be at work, as in the old days, on Latin and Greek.

Difference Between English and Prussian Systems.—It will be seen that this arrangement is in sharp contrast with the continental system originally planned by Prussia. There the state, as soon as it realized the need for alternatives to the "philologisches" system of the gymnasium, sought for diversity of curriculum by establishing new types of schools—*Real Schule, Real Gymnasium* and so forth. If the English public schools had been controlled by a government a similar plan might have been enforced, but since each school determined its own destiny, it was not likely that any one of them would surrender its claim to provide for new electives when the demand for these came to hand in the form of university scholarships.

And the same mode of organization has been followed in the younger ages. Each school differs from its neighbor in details, but the general scheme is the same. What is known in America as a "class" or a "year" is here called a "form," and there are four such grades*: third, fourth, fifth and sixth forms, the sixth being the most advanced. This looks as if a four-year course were provided such as we have in the American high school, but that would be a misconception. The idea of a settled course of so many years is too rigid for these schools; the third forms include the beginners, the sixth the most advanced, and fourths and

* The nomenclature is, however, not uniform. Thus Rugby School has a variety of sixth and fifth forms (called collectively the upper school), but below that range the forms are called "middles"—upper middle, lower middle, etc.

fifths come between. As more divisions are wanted an upper third is established or a lower third, and upper fifth, upper fourth, lower fourth, etc.; each school in course of time has established its own plan of classification and nomenclature.

With such an elastic organization it was comparatively easy to make allowance for "electives" when the intrusion of modern ideas compelled a school to give liberty for a *Real Schule* curriculum; classes were established called modern six, modern five, perhaps even modern four and modern three, and, if these classes grew in popularity with parents, an upper modern four or the like would be added. In some schools a modern three or modern four would not be permitted, since the authorities would hold that a general scheme of classical studies was best for every one; boys in such a school would only be permitted to abandon Latin and Greek when they attained to a fifth-form rank. But almost everywhere now it is possible for a boy to enter and go right through a public school without Greek; such boys pursue German in addition to French.

Illustration of Curriculum and Organization.—As an illustration of these plans, the following may be cited from the *Rugby School Lists* (Summer Term, 1914): "Divisions of the school: The classical side—On the classical side the form subjects are Latin, Greek, and English literature and history. The remaining hours (about one-third of the total) are devoted in the *Sixth Form and Upper School,* to mathematics and *either* natural science *or* modern languages; in the *Middle and Lower Schools,* to math-

ematics, French and natural science. Specialists—Boys who have reached the upper school (classical side) and have shown promise in mathematics, or natural science, can specialize if the head master approves, so as to devote the greater part of their time to either of these branches of study. Boys who have to pass matriculation or other special examinations can usually have their work arranged according to their requirements. The modern side—On the modern side the form subjects are Latin, French and English literature and history. Of the remaining hours in the *Upper School,* about one-half of the total hours are devoted to German, mathematics and natural science; in the *Middle and Lower Schools,* of the total hours about one-quarter is devoted to mathematics and natural science. The army class—In the army class attention is concentrated on the subjects specially required for admission to Woolwich and Sandhurst."

Lists such as this are put together at the beginning of every term in each of the public schools and serve to show how complicated the organization has become in modern times. In the Rugby list each boy finds his name printed in a "form"; his name will not appear in its alphabetical place, but in order of merit, according to the marks he gained in class work and in paper examination conducted at the close of the term. If he or others who were in a certain form (say upper middle I classical) during the previous term have done well in these tests they may be promoted, and their names will appear in lower fifth classical this term (or in lower fifth modern if it is decided that they shall now specialize in a modern curriculum). The most nu-

merous changes are made in the summer, because all who proceed to the universities leave at this period; but readjustments and promotions are made at the end of each term, three times in the year, not only because new pupils arrive, but far more because the stimulus of examination and promotion is relied upon as an indispensable incentive to industry. The Rugby School List mentioned above occupies twenty pages, each headed with the name of its form master, and is followed by thirty pages allotted to "sets": every boy will find his name repeated in a mathematics "set" (1, 2, 3, 4, etc.) with a grouping distinct from his form, and a modern language "set," unless his specialization has enabled him to give up one or more of these studies.

A visitor accustomed to the simplicity of English elementary school "Standards" or American high school "Years," or German Gymnasien "Klassen" finds the system bewildering, but masters and boys soon get used to it. It may be questioned, however, whether the average boy does not suffer from the variety of teachers and classes which claim his attention: the clever boy rapidly passes through lower forms and sets, and secures a position where he can specialize, receiving the careful oversight of two or three teachers; but the average boy, going at a slower pace, often makes but little progress, especially in the subsidiary studies taught in sets. It is difficult, however, to see how this drawback could be surmounted; the system of classification in sets was in fact a reform, adopted in order to secure specialist teaching and classification for the newer branches of study; and

with various modifications it has been imitated in most secondary schools. It is the English method of attaining the results sought in American high schools by the system of electives.

The Fine Arts and Handicrafts.—It will be readily inferred that the movement in American education leading to the establishment of manual-training high schools and other types of secondary education which foster the arts and crafts, has no counterpart in the English public school; for the theory which in the main determines their curriculum assumes that a "discipline" in languages and humanistic pursuits, assisted by mathematics and science, is the best foundation—at least up to sixteen—for a career either in the industrial world or in the various realms of fine art. Nevertheless it would be misleading to assume that these interests have been wholly ignored.

Music.—Since most of these institutions are boarding-schools, and are closely associated either with the Established Church or with some other denomination, the first reason for cultivating singing is to assist in the services of the school chapel. A voluntary choir of masters and boys leads the congregation, and spends much time in the careful practise of church music: the chief music-master of the school is the organist and choir conductor. Apart from this the music-masters will not teach singing in classes, but will be engaged in giving private lessons out of school hours to boys who cultivate the piano, violin or organ; often a school orchestra will be set on foot and concerts given. Music, in short, plays the same part that it does in any active society of students in America.

And because song is so distinctively an expression of corporate feeling it is not surprising that these institutions should at times display a keen interest in popular singing; while only a few members of the society, with special interest in music, join the chapel choir or learn an instrument, all are expected to respond to the appeal of school songs. The present writer, from his own experience, does not believe that boys from fourteen to eighteen, after the voice has broken, are so adapted to respond actively to this appeal as at other periods of life, but they like to hear singing and to feel that they are taking some share. Hence when a teacher of real gifts, such as the famous John Farmer of Harrow, joins a public-school staff, the infection of musical enthusiasm soon spreads. At Harrow in the nineties, E. E. Bowen wrote the songs and Farmer put them to music; some of these, both words and music, have extended their influence far beyond the bounds of Harrow. But little attempt is made at formal teaching of such songs; the natural place for enjoying them is in the "house" where leisure time is spent, and where the most direct display of corporate sentiment is witnessed.

Drawing and Painting.—No public school is without some equipment for these arts; and usually an excellent art room is built, where the few who show special talent and have time allotted for the purpose can do individual work under the art master. Apart from such isolated requirements the younger boys will usually take one or at most two class lessons a week in drawing; and boys preparing for entrance to the army, or for any other examination where drawing is

obligatory, will be organized in drawing classes as required.

Handicrafts.—In the same way all these schools will be equipped with a good workshop, which will be frequented by a few boys who have cultivated at home a special interest in tools, and find time to pursue handicraft in wood or metal as a hobby outside of school hours. One or two schools have gone further and are putting "manual training"—for younger boys —on the same level as drawing. The following announcement from Rugby will explain itself:

"Manual training: From the beginning of the advent term, 1914, all boys in or below the third upper middle will receive instruction in manual work during school hours. The time allotted to this subject will be one and one-half hours per week, and the governing body has authorized a workshops fee of ten shillings per term, which will be charged to all boys in those forms. The instruction will be given by a carpenter and a mechanic, each of whom has had long experience and is expert in his trade, and the scheme is under the general direction of Mr. ————. Boys will be allowed, with their parents' consent, to select for themselves the articles they propose to make, provided that the nature of the work is considered suitable to their ability. These boys will be charged cost price for the materials which they use. Boys who do not wish, or are not sufficiently skilful, to make things for themselves, will be provided with suitable work. In this case they will not be charged for materials, and the finished product will be the property of the school. Tools, aprons and overalls will be provided by the school. (July, 1914.)"

Abbotsholme and Bedales.—It will be generally

agreed that nowhere in the civilized world have the fine arts and handicrafts come to an understanding with secondary education. Modern art pursues its own course, greatly influenced by wider and deeper currents of social change, but seldom seeking to regulate the schooling of youth in place of general education; what influence it exerts is mainly in the sphere of primary schooling. The artist seeks to establish his own art "school" and his pupils seldom come to him before seventeen years of age; thus the years thirteen to seventeen claim little regard, at least so far as boys are concerned. It is only in pioneer institutions with an avowedly "reforming" purpose that efforts in this direction can be observed, and these excite little interest among artists themselves. Among such in England two may be mentioned as making a fair claim to be ranked among public schools—Abbotsholme in Derbyshire and Bedales in Sussex. The fame of Abbotsholme has been spread abroad as well as in England by the genius (very remarkable if somewhat eccentric) of the founder, Doctor Cecil Reddie. In the attention paid at Abbotsholme to music and other fine arts we have an example of the dissatisfaction felt in many quarters with the traditional curriculum of orthodox public schools; equally remarkable is the effort to bring the boys into relation with social service, by the methods employed to make handicrafts, both in the workshop and on the farm.

Bedales is not so revolutionary in its curriculum, but it expresses the modern tendency in another direction since it is co-educational; this school (to which St. George's, Harpenden, a more recent foundation, should

perhaps be added) supplies the only example of a public school which follows the American pattern as regards the association of boys and girls during the adolescent period. There are many secondary day schools in sparsely populated areas which educate the sexes together, but while the two here mentioned maintain their reputation, there is little evidence that they will find imitators. The educational pioneer in Europe has, necessarily, a more difficult task than in America: custom and social usage are more fixed; even parents who in their own modes of thought may be "progressive" are seldom willing to let their sons or daughters, in these critical years, be subjected to experiment. Thus larger reforms, whether in the curriculum or in the deeper issues underlying morals and society, are slow to develop; the Englishman's view about his children is "conservative"; he thinks that on the whole they will do best to conform during youth to the "tradition of the elders," although he foresees that in days to come they may discard tradition and venture on paths of their own choosing.

Hence we should not anticipate any rapid change in the public-school curriculum; change will only come as a consequence of changed relations to art and life in the philosophy of a new generation.

REFERENCES

The essays on various subjects of the curriculum contained in *Higher Education in England* and *The Public Schools from Within*, mentioned in the preceding chapter, may be consulted.

CHAPTER IV

RELATION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL TO ENGLISH LIFE

I HAVE sought in the preceding chapters to display the distinctive features of the public-school communities as based partly upon tradition and peculiar elements in English history, and partly upon universal traits in the disposition of the adolescent. I wish to follow up these two points to wider issues, for my special purpose in writing these chapters is not merely to sketch the outlines of a peculiar educational system, but to show the system in its setting, on the one hand contributing to a nation's development, on the other hand as related to world-wide movements in education.

Public-School Men in Public Life.—First, then, let us inquire what the public schools have done for England. We can answer that question by looking to the fields of public activity which the alumni of the schools have occupied.

In affairs of religion, the Church of England, the historic "Established" communion, has recruited a large number of clergy from this quarter, while the non-conformist communities, Methodist, Congregationalist, and the like, have only small connection with this grade of society. As regards the scholastic profession, as we have seen, there has prevailed a uniform interbreeding between these schools and the two an-

cient universities. In the great professions of law and medicine, the bond is not so close; but it may be roughly said that the great majority of barristers will have been educated at a public school, while the reverse is the case with solicitors; for the barrister makes his headquarters in London; his training and interests are national rather than provincial. A medical man who practises in high social circles finds it to his advantage to have been educated in the exclusive social atmosphere of these schools, but medical training itself is not under the ægis of Oxford and Cambridge; the London hospitals and provincial universities train thousands of medical students who owe nothing to the public schools.

Relation to Trade and Manufacture.—The same is true of commerce and manufacture. Wealthy families, as we saw, commonly send their sons to a public school, and a fair number of these come home after finishing with schools to share in the father's business. But trade and manufacture owe no debt to this type of education. The great bulk of the men who have created English industries are self-made men, risen from the ranks: Lever, of Sunlight Soap; and Lipton, grocer and yachtsman, are typical of their class. The sons and grandsons of these men are able, no doubt, to carry on the affairs of a large commercial house with integrity and industry, but the exclusive cloistered life of a public school gives them no special advantage in the rough and tumble of the commercial world. Nor do we often find public-school men taking a leading part in civic life, as aldermen, city councilor, or the like. On the contrary, it is confessed that the ef-

fect of segregating lads during their adolescent years from the actual environment of the cities where their home lies, fosters a contempt for what seems to them a petty and mean sphere.

The great English and Scottish cities during the last twenty years have witnessed quite remarkable developments in organization—Glasgow, Birmingham, Liverpool, afford examples of municipal enterprise, of which Manchester was perhaps the forerunner; and these great fields of public service have brought to the front a host of men of first-rate ability. Joseph Chamberlain was a typical example in the last thirty years of the nineteenth century. But very rarely, except in London, have men bred in a public-school atmosphere played a part in municipal advancement. Within the last two years an organized effort has been set on foot to redress the balance. During the month of November, 1913, meetings of "public-school" men were held in many of the largest cities to urge upon them the claims of social and civic service. If this duty had been fulfilled in the past, such a special appeal would not have been required.

The Public Schools and Political Life.—We must, therefore, look elsewhere to find the political and social rôle in life for which public-school training has been the natural preparation. If we contrast the England of 1810 when Arnold was a boy at Winchester with the England of to-day, we see an immense change in the relations of Britain toward the entire globe. It is true that England even in the eighteenth century was master of an empire; already the "white man's burden" in India, in Africa, and a hundred smaller

colonies, had been shouldered, but it was reserved for the nineteenth century to discharge this colossal task to the full. The claims alike of war and of peaceful rule have drained the mother country year by year of thousands of her strongest and her ablest young men; and for this service the public school has provided the leaders as well as many of the rank and file. The description we have given of public-school life shows readily the relation of cause and effect. Take a boy away at an early age from home and city, plunge him into a society where discipline, strong control, opportunities for leadership abound, and you destine him without fail to seek a sphere where the masterful qualities of rule over inferiors, of energetic social influence, will be in place. Imperial affairs with all their brilliant prospects of adventure capture his imagination; he enters the army as an officer, and ere long goes with his regiment to the West Indies or the China seas; he enters the Indian civil service and in a year or two, as a collector, is governing the destinies of thousands of natives.

It must be remembered, too, that the roving instinct is in the Englishman's blood—or, rather, one should say that it is a survival of age-long instincts of the Anglo-Saxon race. The farmer in Dakota who traces back his ancestry through Ohio or Illinois to the Yankees of New England and beyond them to an English village, is own brother to the prepostor of a public school who, without a sigh, quits the paternal roof and takes up a sheep-run in Australia or learns to govern colored men in Africa or the Pacific. The point is that the English public school, by its unique

social order, all unwittingly bred a type of man who was wanted throughout the British Empire to discharge such service. When a visitor to Clifton or Wellington or Winchester examines the roll of honor of their alumni he finds a record not only of men of renown in the field of domestic politics, but of hundreds and thousands who have played their part, displaying the public-school spirit all over the globe.

And there are not a few bred in these schools who have no place on the roll of honor but have found in foreign fields a refuge if not a sphere of public duty. The "remittance man" is a well-known character in English novels and he is not merely a figment of the novelist. The weakling at school whose character fails to stand the test of its strenuous life, often fails to meet the sterner demands of social duty afterward; the kindest penalty which his friends can impose is to send him as an emigrant to the frontiers of the empire, where, if anywhere, he may recover self-control, and recall, in a novel environment, those lessons of self-discipline which he had rejected at his public school.

The Public Schools and the Ruling Caste.—Thus both in its failure and its success the fortunes of the public school have been intimately associated with the empire, which grew so portentously, in sunshine and in shadow, during the nineteenth century. The growth of imperial responsibility demanded a constant succession of men, ready to cut loose from home ties, quick to undertake and execute affairs of government, with the instincts of a ruling caste; and here were a

group of schools nursing the stock whence such men could be selected.

I think it may be claimed, without undue conceit, that this great task has been worthily performed. It is not a little for these schools to boast of when they point to English rule in Egypt and India, and in many a smaller colony. Doubtless the story here and there is stained with records of tyranny and crime, but when we compare the success of England with the failure in similar situations of her continental neighbors and seek cause for the effect, we can fairly claim that the specific social training of the public school, unknown to other European nations, provided the specific qualities in habit and moral character which have enabled the Englishman to rule inferior races both with firmness and with sympathy. His youthful life at school was a great social adventure, with the storm and stress of conquest and submission, learning to give and take both from those beneath him and those above him; now out in the empire, apart from his fellows, these social habits are tested. The "moral thoughtfulness" which, in Arnold's classic phrase, was the ideal of his school life, has to guide him as a lieutenant in a sepoy regiment, as a ruler and judge of alien races, as teacher and guide to men who only know Britain as Britain knew Rome; and if the fate of the British Empire prove happier than that of Rome, its survival and good fame will be due only to the enforcement of those lofty standards which British lads were taught in public schools.

The Public Schools and Democracy.—The mention of Rome recalls at once—especially to the Amer-

ican reader—the limitations of this picture. We saw that the public school is a despotism and necessarily so; there was no place for democracy, said Arnold, in the childhood of the race, and since schoolboys share the psychology of barbarians, the *ethos* of their corporate life stands apart from modern democracy. Now as regards "imperial" rule, i. e., the control of races unripe for self-government, the tool has been admirably fitted for the task in hand; but what of the future? What guidance will these races require at the crucial moment when they feel themselves ripe for democracy? That time is not yet; but many an Englishman, looking vaguely into the future, wonders if the time will ever come when the fulness of democratic freedom, which is his boast at home, can ever be reconciled with the habits of the ruling caste that holds an empire in subjection. We have to admit the phrase "ruling caste"—not a rigid, separated class like the Brahmins in India or even like the Junker class in Germany, but none the less a group which tends by the exclusive nature of its schooling to stand apart from the commoner sort of people. Avowedly the public school sets out to train leaders—or as they are sometimes called, "the directive classes." Hitherto both in England and abroad elbow room has been found for a group trained with such tendencies without endangering the social peace of a community whose aristocracy is yielding to democracy. It will be our task in the concluding chapter to consider whether the public schools are likely to adjust themselves to a changing world.

The Public Schools and Corporate Life.—The relationship between the public school and the needs of the British Empire is perhaps a matter of greater interest to English students of education than to foreigners. The other aspect of the theme, viz.: its relationship to the general course of development in pedagogics and in sociology has a universal reference. In glancing back over the history of educational theory, it is remarkable how decisively the sociological aspects of the educative process have been ignored. Even writers like Pestalozzi, glowing with humanitarian enthusiasm, had little appreciation of the corporate life of the school, and the same is true of Herbart and Froebel. While as regards Bain, Herbert Spencer and other English writers (apart from Thomas Arnold), these were positively out of sympathy with such conceptions, for they took an individualistic view not only of schooling, but of politics and economics. All these writers expounded the psychology of the class room and of the school as if each individual was apart from his fellows, receiving something called instruction as an isolated experience. The social factors involved were relegated into separate compartments of pedagogy, such as: art of questioning, class management, physical exercises.

The change in our professional outlook is the consequence of profound changes in political and economic theory which, beginning in Germany, have created the new science of sociology. It need hardly be added that these changes are not the invention of armchair philosophers, but are the result of still more

fundamental changes in public opinion. In Germany the change has been well represented among the Herbartians—pupils of Rein at Jena are familiar with his eloquent description of the school as *"eine beseelte Gesellschaft"*—and, apart from the Herbartians, in the varied attempts to make school games and school excursions an effective force. It is in the United States, however, that the force of this change has been most fully admitted, and with the publication (1898) of Dewey's *School and Society* the new conception appeared, fully equipped not only as a criticism of existing practises, but with constructive plans, worked out in an actual school, and producing its fruit in the lives of school pupils.

An extract from a later essay by Professor Dewey will exhibit the new principle in a few words: "The school can not be a preparation for social life excepting as it reproduces, within itself, typical conditions of social life. At present it is largely engaged in the futile task of Sisyphus. It is endeavoring to form habits in children for use in a social life which, it would almost seem, is carefully and purposely kept away from vital contact with the child undergoing training. The only way to prepare for social life is to engage in social life. To form habits of social usefulness and serviceableness apart from any direct social need and motive, apart from any existing social situation, is, to the letter, teaching the child to swim by going through motions outside of the water. The most indispensable condition is left out of account, and the results are correspondingly partial."

The Life, Not the Curriculum, Socialized.—Now the one point to make clear as regards the English public school is that this doctrine of social interaction between the members of society, leading to right behavior in the larger community of the world beyond, is found fully exhibited in the writings of Arnold and his followers. There is, of course, an important difference in the application of the doctrine, for while Arnold did nothing to "socialize" the curriculum and confined his view to the out-of-school life of his pupils, Dewey paid chief attention to reform in the curriculum. Both were right in a sense, for the pupils whom Dewey has handled, from five to fourteen years, are at a period when reform of the school pursuits is felt to be urgent, whereas Arnold's attention was chiefly attracted to the stage of adolescence, at which, as we have seen, the social instincts demand expression to an exceptional degree.

"We have to remember," says Percival, "that social, or corporate, life is a necessity to all of us. Your nature can not grow to its full and healthy stature if it grows apart and isolated. . . . As we sit side by side, with one purpose and one aim, uttering the same words, thinking the same thoughts, stirred in some degree by the same impulses, so that our life moves all together in something like rhythmic harmony . . . in such a case we are not the same as before we met. For the time at any rate, if not for all time, and, as a consequence of this, our life is a different thing. And this change is what we understand by the difference between corporate and individual life, between sympathetic union and isolation."

I have taken these words from the head master of Clifton in the seventies rather than from Arnold himself to show that this sociological theory continued to be recognized as a foundation of the public-school system. Except in school sermons and in a few biographies, the theory has not been expounded in print or treated as pedagogic doctrine simply because the public-school master has not been concerned with pedagogics. Although Arnold and a few of his successors took a lively interest in education as a whole, the general tendency of these schools has been, inevitably, to keep apart from the rest of the world: hence we witness all through the nineteenth century the practise of an important pedagogic system in one group of schools, side by side with efforts to develop pedagogics by Bain, Spencer, Sully and others; and the two had no contact with each other, no sympathy and very little acquaintance in any way. If a personal reference may be pardoned, I may state that my edition of *Arnold of Rugby* in 1897 was designed to prove to both parties that the time had arrived for each to study the other's work; for a mutual recognition which would synthesize the individualistic theories of the one with the "corporate life" theory of the other in a more complete exposition of the facts of educational science.

Arnold and Dewey Complementary.—We may, therefore, regard Arnold in the forties and Dewey in the nineties as complementary to each other; pioneers in a new conception of the functions of the school. Dewey is the more profound, and has taken the more difficult task in hand, since to reshape the entire timetable of school pursuits is to inaugurate a revolution

in all the procedure of the teaching profession. Arnold, on the other hand, was a reformer rather than a revolutionary; he was confronted by a community which displayed in active confusion the social phenomena which were the subject of his investigation; as a theorist and educational thinker, his task lay in discerning the nature of adolescent society and in testing the value of expedients which would assist its moral and intellectual betterment.

CHAPTER V

NEW TENDENCIES AND CONDITIONS TO BE MET

WE have seen that the public-school system is mainly of interest to observers and students because it provides so distinctive an example of a corporate community life; the phenomena are sociological; the problems are those of the development of adolescents in an energetic, masterful environment. We have rapidly surveyed the conditions under which this type of community has taken shape in England; can we make any forecast? Are there any data to enable us to judge if changes of importance are taking place in the inner life and ways of a public school?

New Factors in Public School Administration.— It may be taken for granted that these changes will not usually originate from the teachers or governors of the schools. School societies all over the world tend to emphasize the maintenance of tradition rather than attention to reform and progress; this tendency is emphasized in the public schools, since both teachers and taught come from a class where inheritance from the past, alike in lands, wealth and culture, affords the basis for social stability. If we turn then our attention to the world outside, from which new points of view insert themselves in this conservative atmosphere, we can distinguish two sources of in-

fluence: the schoolmaster himself is a different person from his predecessor of fifty years ago; and the boy who comes to the school has already, before arriving there, been subject to influences different from those of earlier generations.

Adequately to handle either of these themes we should need to diagnose the currents of social change which have passed over England as a whole; this task is beyond us, but a few hints may be offered. First of all, while the public-school master is still very closely tied to his social circle, i. e., Oxford, Cambridge and the patrons of the schools, his outlook has been immensely broadened by the general diffusion of democratic sympathies and usage, fostering a disposition more tolerant and broadminded. On the other hand it is impossible to escape the impression that he is less of an idealist than his predecessors, more inclined to treat his school as a business investment in which he must make sure of the profits. England during the last twenty years has made enormous strides in all the external comforts of life: living has become more luxurious, London more attractive, the continent a finer health resort; these things have played a too prominent part in the life of these societies and brought them in peril of degeneration.

The situation may be illustrated by the relation of the teaching staff to the Church of England. Out of thirty-eight assistant masters at Rugby just now, only six are clergymen; and this proportion, say ten to fifteen per cent., represents the case in most of the other public schools. In Arnold's day the proportion would be fifty or sixty per cent. The change is due partly to

the more tolerant spirit of the times: for the patrons of these schools do not nowadays require the title of "Reverend" to be attached to a schoolmaster as a guarantee of his moral probity; partly to a more conscientious examination by the masters of the obligations incurred in the clerical calling, but partly, one imagines, to the unwillingness of many men to treat their employment as a grave pastoral responsibility, in the spirit of Arnold and the men of his day. Fifty years ago many able university men of the graver sort took to schoolmastering along with "holy orders" as a fine field for national service, adopting the calling in the spirit of service: some still do so; but for many others the call to service can be answered equally well in many other spheres of national life, which have only asserted their claims since Arnold's day. Thus the teacher's work, by comparison, has come to be regarded as a somewhat mean and cramped employment. It is averred that the quality of schoolmaster who now leaves Oxford and Cambridge to serve these schools is impoverished. These statements are difficult either to disprove or to maintain, but there seems to be some good reason to accept them as at least partly true.

The Public-School Master Hears the Call of the World.—What is still more certain is that when a man has taken an assistant mastership in a public school he is not so likely to remain in the work as his predecessor of fifty years ago. In those days the only alternatives were to take up clerical work proper as a parish priest, or to take the chances of success in an academic or literary career at one of the universities or in the metropolis. These avenues of change are still open and at-

tract some away: for example, the Reverend W. Temple, the young head master of Repton College, son of Archbishop Temple, who was once head master of Rugby, has resigned Repton for the rectorship of a London parish. But the development of national education has offered a scope for such men more in line with the narrower field of professional life. Many administrative positions analogous to the American office of superintendent of education are now available, and a man who has spent three or four years as a public-school master, as the sequel to a good university record, is often chosen for such work. Then the rapid growth of day secondary schools of a type similar to German or American city high schools, has created a demand for high-school principals; and these appointments are frequently filled by young men from the public schools, who prefer to secure a post of larger responsibility although it cuts them off from the more congenial atmosphere in which they have been bred.

The Englishman, like the American, is by nature a man of action and enterprise: he likes to rule, to achieve; and these qualities are hard to reconcile with the pastoral office, that is to say with the quiet exercise of intellectual and moral influence in a confined society. Where a man of ability and resource can be so satisfied, content with having his reward in the success of his pupils in later life, satisfied in his sentiments by association with a corporate body which has great traditions and noble ideals, such a man is a great treasure in a public school although he remain an assistant master for forty years. There are not a few such men serving these schools to-day, and they are the salt of the earth;

but the tendencies of the times as well as the genius of the English character tend to limit the supply of them.

A New Type of Boy in the Public Schools.— Turning now to the boys who come to these schools, can we put into words the changes in environment and influence which make them a different sort of material from the boys that Thomas Arnold found at Rugby in the forties? The fundamentals, of course, of boy nature are the same; but in every rank of society the deeper currents of change in schooling must be traced to the influences which operate from infancy on the disposition and tastes of the young before they enter the school walls. For school is a society in which the members exercise an active influence upon one another, although they have no intention of so doing: the influence in fact is all the more powerful on this account.

Speaking quite generally one may note two influences: the one pervading all classes of English society, the other confined to the social group in which public schools are bred. The first is the influence of "freedom," relaxation of old ideas of discipline. Freedom was not only the leading note of nineteenth-century politics, but it permeated by a thousand routes into the disposition of men and women in their homes and their social circles. The child has been recognized as an individual, with some claim to the indulgence of individual tastes, with still stronger claims on sympathy and tolerance; he has been treated more as an equal, entitled to read the newspapers and the novels, to travel with his parents, to see and hear far more than he can understand of the complex bustling world which railways, telegraphs and motor-cars have brought to his doors.

If one can select one epithet to describe the change it will be *precocity*. Every one admits how rapidly habits and views of behavior have developed; tendencies which in medieval and in ancient times would have taken a century to accomplish are now fully organized in thirty years or less. Few people as yet seem to recognize how this progress is accelerated by the inclusion of children within the sphere of these operations. Not only does the child tend to imitate the airs of knowingness and capacity which he finds in his adult associates, but the assumption of these habits prepares him for a rapid adoption of whatever of novelty may be offered when he in turn plays the rôle of an adult.

The best way for an onlooker to grasp the force of this situation is to read in succession two novels dealing with the public school, taking first *Tom Brown's School Days,* and then *The Harrovians,* by Arnold Lunn. They are both of them authentic, i. e., they give a faithful record of the mind of certain schoolboys of the period. It would be false to regard either of them as representing the average life of boys of their epoch; Tom Brown tends to optimism, while Peter and his associates give a very depressing view of life at Harrow; but as data for sociological study they are unequaled.

The Trend of the Times.—Now the public schools and the society to which they belong have sought to oppose the excesses of precocity by strengthening the influence of *convention.* Young people are more governed by social practise, by "good form," than their elders are, for the simple reason that they are learning *how* to live and they readily take on the pattern presented to them. A public-school boy to-day lives in a

society governed to an extraordinary extent by rules and shibboleths. Some of these appear ridiculous to the outsider; most of them unnecessary; but they are to him *the* correct thing, just as evening dress is the correct thing for a gentleman to wear at dinner. The preparatory school to which we have alluded above is partly a provision to secure that the proper style and form for a "young gentleman" is molded right through from the age of ten or even younger, so that when the boy presents himself for entrance to his public school he is already shaped to pattern, both intellectually and morally. Space does not permit of a deeper diagnosis even if the present writer were fitted by recent and intimate study of these schools for fuller interpretation; but he believes that by tracing the course of these two large principles, freedom in national life leading to precocity, countered by the maintenance of exclusive convention, a student can find the key to explain the changes in the material which the public-school master of the present day has to educate.

The Softening Tendencies of the Age.—By way of comparison with my own impression, I have asked a friend who has spent all his life (except four years at Oxford) in the public schools to tell me in what direction he can see change in the boy of to-day as compared with the boy of forty years ago. He writes: "The boys of my time were much rougher and more independent of masters; . . . they have become much more polished and they are *softer;* their ideal is 'to have a good time,' and their parents encourage this. But they have a lot of good stuff in them yet: Rugby football and self-government keep them manly. There is noth-

ing so delightful as the way in which leading boys in a house will cooperate with their house master if he is at all keen in everything affecting the welfare of the house, and will give him their confidence if he has sense. . . . I think many preparatory schools have much to answer for in making the boys soft and pampered. They are driven (being commercial speculators) by the need of pleasing the mothers. . . . The great difference is that boys now stay at these preparatory schools till thirteen or fourteen years of age: and this has greatly modified the character of the modern public-school boy. . . . He is nowadays very amenable to discipline—no bullying—no fights—no stern characters among the boys themselves: every one is very good-natured and pleasant. I should have said that they were hyper-civilized till I saw how they have stood the test of war."

What of the Future?—To forecast the future is at all times a rash adventure: writing at this moment, when England is subject to an upheaval such as we have not experienced for a hundred years, the attempt would be more than rash. One feature of this great war as affecting the public schools is sufficiently clear: they have contributed a very large proportion of the officers in all grades of the national army. Our last campaign of importance, the Boer War in South Africa, taught some lessons which the nation at large scarcely understood, but which were well appreciated by men of affairs: the failure of our officers both in intelligence and in professional skill was admitted on every hand. Since then a diligent effort has been made not only to reform quite radically the train-

ing of the professional soldier, but to create by the machinery known as the "Officers' Training Corps" (O. T. C.) a body of young men in the universities and public schools, equipped with an elementary knowledge and skill in military matters which could be drawn upon whenever the empire demanded. Many hundreds of boys and masters in the public schools as well as in the universities responded to this appeal. Especially during the last five years these corps have advanced rapidly both in efficiency and in numbers. On the declaration of war they were ready to supply thousands of officers for the new levies popularly known as Kitchener's Army; and at the same time both the universities and the public schools have virtually been turned into military camps, busily training thousands more to take the places of those who have "gone to the front."

True enough the same devotion to the empire and zeal for military service now infuse all ranks of society, and all the belligerent countries; but what is claimed for the public-school system is that it produces a type of character which shapes young men to be leaders, officers whom privates will trust and follow. The colossal armies now fronting each other in east and west are suffering more from the loss of officers and commanders than of private soldiers, and although England has become so largely a democratic country, it is still influenced in all sorts of ways by tradition: the combination of democratic impulse with the survival of class feeling seems to meet the practical needs of the situation. Hence one of the by-products of this desperate struggle is becoming apparent, a minor "good" to offset a little the gigantic evils of our time—the

classes are being brought into closer sympathy. These public-school boys and university students, before they are of age, are brought face to face with miners from the pits, with clerks from city offices: all of them of their free will adopting a new and perilous career. Here is an education in social behavior, in discipline and fellowship, which no one designed, but which in every camp in Great Britain is welding men together and teaching us lessons which will never be forgotten.

THE END

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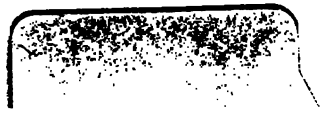
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